DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 185 410 CE 025 133

| | |
|---|---|
| TITLE | Development of a Plan for Research, Development and Instruction in Adult Vocational Education. Final Report. |
| INSTITUTION | Illinois Univ., Urbana. Dept. of Vocational and Technical Education. |
| SPONS AGENCY | Illinois State Office of Education, Springfield. Div. of Adult Vocational and Technical Education. |
| PUB DATE | 30 Jun 79 |
| NOTE | 264p. |
| EDRS PRICE | MF01/PC11 Plus Postage. |
| DESCRIPTORS | *Adult Vocational Education; Agency Cooperation; Articulation (Education); Career Change; Community Education; Cooperative Programs; *Coordination; Delivery Systems; Demonstration Programs; Educational Development; *Educational Planning; Educational Research; Enrichment Activities; Improvement; Individual Needs; Institutional Cooperation; Job Training; Needs Assessment; Occupational Mobility; Program Development; Promotion (Occupational); Reentry Workers; *Relevance (Education); Retraining; *Statewide Planning; Underemployment; Unemployment |
| IDENTIFIERS | Illinois |

ABSTRACT

This report of a project to begin to develop a plan for research, development, and instruction in adult vocational education in Illinois has two specific goals: (1) to identify the current status of adult vocational education in Illinois and (2) to recommend key directions for state actions. It presents information collected through a comprehensive review of literature supplemented by interviews with key individuals involved in adult vocational education in Illinois and by information obtained from adults with a need for vocational education. Following an introductory section and another discussing the current status of adult vocational education, major groups of adults who need and could benefit from vocational education are considered individually in five sections. These groups consist of adults who are (1) seeking to upgrade occupational skills for purposes of occupational maintenance or advancement, (2) planning or undertaking a mid-life career change or re-entering the paid work force after an extended absence, (3) unemployed and/or underemployed, (4) seeking vocational education for avocational purposes. Each section describes problems encountered in delivering vocational education to each of these groups, identifies exemplary programs and available opportunities for each group, and makes recommendations for action concerning delivery of vocational education to each group. (YLB)

**********
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
**********

ED185410

# DEVELOPMENT OF A PLAN FOR RESEARCH, DEVELOPMENT AND INSTRUCTION IN ADULT VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

## FINAL REPORT

Donald F. Muirheid, Chairman
State Board of Education

Joseph M. Cronin
State Superintendent of Education

Department of Adult Vocational and Technical Education
100 North First Street
Springfield, Illinois 62777

June 30, 1979

CE 025 133

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
C. REISINGER
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

FINAL REPORT

Contract Number RD5-A9-249

Project Title: Development of a Plan for Research, Development and Instruction in Adult Vocational Education

Grantee Organization: Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois 61801


PROJECT DIRECTOR:

Dr. James A. Leach

Department of Vocational and Technical Education
University of Illinois at
Urbana-Champaign

RESEARCH ASSISTANTS:

Mary Beth Blastic
Eva E. Coffey
Mary Ann Figuly
Judith S. Hunter

Department of Vocational and Technical Education
University of Illinois at
Urbana-Champaign

TABLE OF CONTENTS


| | | Page |
|---|---|---|
| I. | Introduction | 1 |
| | Purpose of Report | 2 |
| | Definition of Adult Vocational Education | 2 |
| | Learning Theory Applied to Adults | 4 |
| | Enhancing Adult Achievement | 13 |
| II. | Current Status of Adult Vocational Education in Illinois | 16 |
| | Administration | 16 |
| | Definition | 22 |
| | Elimination of Barriers | 25 |
| | Characteristics of Illinois Adult Learners | 27 |
| | Programs Serving the Handicapped and Disadvantaged | 35 |
| | Major Groups of Adults Who Can Benefit from Vocational Education | 40 |
| III. | Vocational Education for Occupational Maintenance and/or Advancement | 44 |
| | Changing Labor Market | 44 |
| | Business and Industry Retraining Needs | 48 |
| | Motives and Needs of Adults Seeking Retraining | 52 |
| | Barriers to Participation in Adult Vocational Education | 56 |
| | Illinois Programs for Occupational Maintenance and Advancement | 58 |
| | Conclusion | 61 |

IV. Vocational Education for the Unemployed and/or Underemployed . . . . . 64
The Unemployed . . . . . 64
Reasons for Unemployment . . . . . 65
Women . . . . . 72
Vietnam-Era Veterans . . . . . 78
The Handicapped . . . . . 85
Youth, Young Adults . . . . . 91
The Elderly . . . . . 98
Minorities . . . . . 105
The Underemployed . . . . . 111
Delivery Systems for Vocational Education to the Unemployed and Underemployed . . . . . 117

V. Vocational Education for Mid-Life Career Change and for Re-Entering the Paid Work Force . . . . . 141
Adult Life Cycle Research . . . . . 145
Historical Overview of Vocational Development Research and Vocational Guidance . . . . . 149
Mid-Life Career Development and Vocational Educator-Practitioners . . . . . 154
Purpose of Study . . . . . 162
Definitions . . . . . 163
Limitations . . . . . 164
Methodology . . . . . 164
Population . . . . . 166
Instrumentation . . . . . 167

Data Collection and Analysis . . . . . 169
Results . . . . . 170
Sample Characteristics . . . . . 170
General Work History Information . . . . . 178
General Career Change Information . . . . . 184
Composite Work History and Career Change Information . . . . . 191
Mid-Life Career Changers and Re-entry Persons . . . . . 202
Summary, Conclusions and Implications . . . . . 215

VI. Vocational Education for Avocational Purposes . . . . . 234
Characteristics of Learners . . . . . 234
Structure of the Delivery System . . . . . 238
Future Directions . . . . . 239

VII. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations . . . . . 242

# INTRODUCTION

Adults are entering or re-entering vocational education activities in growing numbers. They seek vocational education to receive initial occupational training, to upgrade skills to maintain an occupation or seek promotion, to change careers, to re-enter the paid work world, or for avocational reasons.

A popular view of the life cycle is that a person's life is divided into three phases: preparation for work, the work itself and then, retirement. This artificial dichotomy is at variance with current data which indicate that people change jobs six to seven times during a lifetime. Because changes in a person's job require some sort of educational experience, education is a continuous process interspersed with work.

Research about adults is increasing as the "maturity myth" is dispelled. The myth assumes people will make the right choices as young adults and that the right choices will guarantee fulfillment for the rest of one's life. The myth also assumes that adulthood is stable, certain, and free from major decisions, doubts, conflicts, and change. The research is growing but what is presently known is inadequate. The research tends to be summary information about white, middle class adults (Knox, 1977). There is little research based knowledge about minorities and other special populations.

In 1975 for the first time, adult learners engaged in vocational and adult education outnumbered the youth in the formal system at all levels (Grabowski, 1976). Based on critical economic, social, and technological conditions and on population age shifts, it is apparent that this trend will continue.

Two educational concepts emerged during the last decade which are having a profound effect on adult vocational education -- career education and lifelong learning (Davis, 1976). The concept of career education recognizes that for most people a meaningful, satisfying, and productive work experience is important. The concept of lifelong learning is based on the need of most people to continuously upgrade their skills and/or change career directions.

Purpose of Report

The overall purpose of this project was to begin to develop a plan for research, development, and instruction in adult vocational education in the State of Illinois. As a first step in this direction two specific goals for this report were identified. First, to identify the current status of adult vocational education in Illinois, and second, to recommend key directions in which the State may move regarding adult vocational education. To accomplish these goals, a comprehensive review of literature was undertaken. This procedure was supplemented by interviews and discussions with key individuals involved in adult vocational education in Illinois. Information was also obtained from adults in the State who have a need for adult vocational education.

Definition of Adult Vocational Education

Finding a precise and agreeable definition of adult vocational education is a difficult, if not impossible, task. The illusiveness of a precise and agreeable definition may be an indicator of, and be very healthy for serving, the changing needs of adults.

The definitions of adult continuing education by various individuals, organizations, and legislative bodies have varied in scope and meaning. In the Education Amendments of 1976, the Congress indicated

continuing education is

> postsecondary instruction designed to meet the educational needs and interests of adults including the expansion of available learning opportunities for adults who are not adequately served by current educational opportunities in their communities (p.11).

Adult programs are further defined by the Rules and Regulations for Part IV of Public Law 94-482 as

> vocational education for persons who have already entered the labor market or who are unemployed or who have completed or left high school and who are not described in the definition of postsecondary program (p.53863).

Liverright (1968) suggested that adult occupational and vocational education deals with preparing adults to begin entry level positions and retraining and upgrading workers already in the labor force. This also includes basic education because it is a prerequisite for employment and skill training.

No clear line exists in our society to define adulthood. Defining adulthood by age is inappropriate in many instances. A person sixteen years of age may be considered more mature than a person of twenty-five. Part-time students who are twenty years of age and self-supporting may have different characteristics and concerns than older full-time students who are supported by parents and have not had an interruption in their education. This report focuses on adult vocational education for individuals who have assumed responsibilities for themselves and look to themselves for direction.

Vocational education for these people has multiple interrelated purposes. Adult vocational education assists learners in planning and choosing careers, developing skills, entering the work world, and moving from one career ladder to another. Regardless of the definition

used, a strong implication arises for focusing on the vocational needs of adults.

Learning Theory Applied to Adults

Providers of adult education activities operate in a "system" with characteristics very different from the systems providing elementary and secondary education. Adult education is characterized by its self-supporting open-market character, that is many providers both public and private offer a variety of learning activities for a range of prices. The open market makes the voluntary consumer reasonably powerful and creates the need for information and financial assistance for the adult student. Unlike elementary and secondary education, adult education is comprised of variety in size and type of providers, the instructional delivery system used, the staff, the content, the outcomes and recognition of learning, and the expectation and motivations of the adult learner. The participants are likely to engage in activities from more than one provider as providers compete for clientele. Providers find it critical to attract and retain students. The potential student is influenced by the quality of the program, cost, location, instructional method, and scheduling options.

According to Hriceniak and Mannebach (1978), there are several characteristics of adult students. As learners they differ from youth in several ways. They are:

1. They are more realistic. Adults have lived longer so have a different perspective of life. They see life as a set of realities.
2. They are more experienced. They have discernable insights and see relationships children cannot compre-

hend. Adults generally know what likely will and will not work. Wisdom.

3. They have more concrete and immediate needs than children. They prefer applied theory for practical problems.
4. They want to be treated as mature adults, not talked down to.
5. They enjoy having their talents and information made use of in the teaching situation.
6. They are more heterogeneous - differences increase with age and mobility. Wider backgrounds and intelligence levels.
7. They learn as well as children, but due to physical state may not do some tasks as rapidly. In certain areas, adults surpass children, i.e., vocabulary, general information, and reasoning. Also to their advantage, adults have longer attention spans.
8. They have mixed motives for attending classes, i.e., educational, social, recreational, political and out of a sense of duty.
9. Their orientation to school is different. Children are peer oriented, adults are family and community oriented. Adults appreciate teachers' efforts in the classroom.
10. Adult students are generally highly motivated but need frequent reinforcement.
11. They have a tendency toward feelings of inadequacy and fear of failure.

12. They have higher standards of performance; adults generally set standards that approach perfection.
13. Their goals are different. For youth education is for life to come, adults want education to solve problems and fill needs for here and now.
14. Adults like to be aware of their progress, they appreciate "immediate" feedback.
15. Adults have real things to lose. Again, they will avoid activities that they feel will exhibit their inadequacies.

Adults, on their own initiative, are accustomed to learning new skills, knowledge and values. They engage in activities that change them as individuals and as workers, all as personal independent activities. So, if adults are given experiences and content, behavior changes will occur without the situation classroom.

Therefore, adult education may take place in almost any suitable place. Some such places include community colleges, four-year colleges, universities, proprietary schools, libraries, museums, correspondence agencies, radio and television stations, professional societies, business and industry, labor unions, correctional institutions, the Armed Forces, government at all levels, community education organizations, religious groups, voluntary social and welfare agencies, health and recreation groups, special interest groups, public schools (as a "community school") and mobile classrooms (to reach students who are near no facility).

A major concern of adult students is time. There may be many locations for holding adult education, however, due to job or family responsibilities, or both, many adults are able to attend classes only on

weekends or evenings. Another time consideration is learning speed -- each learn at different speeds. So, adult education needs to be largely individualized instruction, flexible, accessible, and if necessary altered school calendars (as in Florida where the school year is divided into quinmesters to accommodate the needs of its students year round).

Adulthood is a continual shift between periods of stability and change. This constant shifting leads to changes in adult roles, their values, and priorities. The periods of change may be the result of learning or the need to learn may result from an unexpected change (e.g., the death of a spouse). Two types of learning occur. One is the result of a deliberate effort to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes. The second type of learning occurs informally as the result of an event in which the adult changes his/her performance or attitudes. In both instances learning is an internal process which takes place within the learner and involves a reintegration of his or her experiences. Learning new subject matter may involve the difficult task of unlearning. Learning for adults is most likely to occur when the learner perceives it to be meaningful and contributing to personal goals.

Adult learning is influenced by various characteristics of the adult learner. The following section will examine some of these aspects.

Physical Condition. Physical limitations may hinder the learning process. If the adult is too tired from working or has a hearing loss, s/he may not benefit from the educational activity as much as possible. The environment in which the learning takes place may minimize the interference to learning, (for example, good accoustics and sound system or adequate lighting).

Relevance to the Learner. Learning will be enhanced if the content and learning tasks are relevant and interesting to the learner. Knowles concluded that programs which are based on what planners think students ought to learn will fail (1970). Learning is most likely to occur when it utilizes and is based on the learners past experiences and needs. Therefore, it is necessary to involve the learner in the planning process.

Adjustment and Personal Outlook. The way the person adjusts to the learning situation affects the ability to learn. If the learner is apprehensive about the learning experience, afraid of failure, or has other personal or social adjustment problems the learner may not maximize the learning activity. This type of learner needs support, assistance and guidance in a non-threatening environment. An adult who is challenged, open to new ideas and suggestions, and motivated is likely to experience successful learning. The ability to adapt to change and new situations is more highly associated with flexibility than with the individual's age.

Pacing. The greatest amount of learning is likely to occur when the activities are self-paced. Older adults can demonstrate the same ability to learn as they did as young adults when material is self-paced.

Status. Learning ability can be affected by the person's socioeconomic level. Values, responsibilities, constraints, and past educational attainment are all factors affecting socioeconomic status. When an adult values education and believes further education enables a person to have more self control over his/her life, the adult is likely to participate in learning activities. Learning is enhanced because education is

viewed as having desired outcomes. Responsibilities may enhance or hinder learning. Family obligations or work may prevent a learner from benefiting fully from learning activities because not enough time is available. Similar responsibilities may provide the motivation necessary to seek vocational education to improve the family's quality of life. Constraints may include lack of time, money, information or support for educational pursuits from significant others.

The most significant factor is the adult's past educational attainment. The greater the past experience in educational activities, the more education most adults seek. These adults are more comfortable in educational settings, have developed skills utilizing written media and enjoy learning. Adults with lower past educational attainment are often ill at ease and may have negative feelings toward traditional educational settings which hinder learning. Some of these attitudes can be overcome by using nontraditional methods, outreach centers and utilizing oral communication rather than written.

Change. The amount of change involved can influence learning. The acceptance of change by students can vary widely depending on how similar or different new knowledge and skills are to experiences and values internalized earlier in life. The more the learner feels accepted as a person with the right to decide whether or not to change the less likely the adult will resist change. The more the new learnings are reinforced by verbalizing them and applying them, the more permanent the learning becomes (Kidd, 1974).

Ability. When adults consider entering into educational activities they are influenced by their estimation of their ability to learn. Too often adults are insecure and underestimate their ability. They overestimate

the importance of their performance in early formal education. They tend to underestimate their abilities to learn demonstrated in recent informal learning activities. The educator may need to work with adults to strengthen their estimation of their ability and build self confidence.

Currently there is no instrument that effectively measures the adult's ability to learn. The Wechaler Adult Intelligence Scale is widely used to estimate the performance on mental tasks. It does not provide an "accurate estimate of adult learning ability related to social effectiveness, such as modification of occupational performance or mastery of gourmet cooking" (Knox, 1977, p. 413).

Many factors involving ability to learn are assumed to be related to age. The individual's capacity to learn and perform are relatively stable throughout life but the ability can be deteriorated by ill health, especially for older adults.

Many of the learning tasks adults engage in are related to fluid and crystallized intelligence. Fluid intelligence "consists of the ability to perceive complex relations, engage in short term memory, form concepts, and engage in abstract reasoning," (Knox, 1977, p. 420). This type of intelligence is independent of education. Crystallized intelligence is the ability "to perceive relations and to engage in formal reasoning and abstraction based on a familiarity with knowledge of the intellectual and cultural heritage of society," (Knox, 1977, p. 421). This type of intelligence is based on acculturation. Learning involves one or the other or a combination of both.

Intelligence is age related. Both crystallized and fluid intelligence increase during childhood. As the youth matures fluid intelligence peaks and declines during adulthood while crystallized intelligence

continues to grow. It can be enhanced by educational activities. The younger adult may solve a problem by developing an innovative approach while the older adult solves the same problem by selecting a strategy developed through a lifetime of experience.

Information Processing. The way in which adults process information is age related. Most of the research has dealt with the acquisition of knowledge and not with modifying skills and attitudes. Aspects of information processing involve (a) attention to information, (b) memory, (c) practice and reinforcement, (d) interference, (e) transfer, and (f) incidental learning.

(a) attention. When the information is closely related to information the adult learner already possesses, the learner can be selective and more accurate in focusing attention on new information, thus enhancing learning. Unfamiliar and complex learning activities are confusing, especially for the older adult. The adult may view the unfamiliar content as a challenge to master or lose interest as obstacles are encountered. The educator can encounrage adults of any age to persist in learning activities by helping them set realistic objectives that are challenging and by organizing content in a logical way. The adult's need to be accurate (adopt the standards of the workplace) can aid the adult's persistence in successfully mastering a new competence. The same need for accuracy can block innovation and flexibility.

(b) memory. Adults are most likely to register, retain, and recall information if it is meaningful to them. Older adults have more trouble registering and recalling information. They tend to make errors due to decreased short term memory rather than mistakes. Educators can help adults strengthen their memories by the use of aids, summarizing content and using self-paced instructio

(c) practice. There is little tested knowledge about effective reinforcement and practice patterns for the adult learner. Experienced adult educators plan a variety of ways in which the new knowledge, skill and attitudes can be practiced in and out of the educational setting.

(d) interference. Interference in the learning process occurs when new information conflicts with previously held beliefs and ideas. The adult may need to unlearn information in order to accommodate new information.

(e) transfer. Adult students participate in educational activities so that they can reapply or transfer the learning to other situations such as the workplace. The extent that age is related to transfer is unclear.

(f) incidental learning. Adults acquire information unintentionally. This pattern appears to parallel the pattern of stability of intentional learning.

Thinking. Educators may find it useful to understand aspects of thinking which effect the adult's ability to learn. Problem solving is one pattern of thinking the adult may use. This pattern requires the adult to diagnose or formulate a problem and develop plans and strategies to solve it. Practice in problem solving helps develop the ability to do so. Older adults rely on problem solving strategies developed throughout life rather than developing new solutions. But older adults may be less effective problem solvers because they tend to reuse ineffective strategies. The decline in short term memory may hinder the process. Critical thinking is a second pattern of thinking. This is the ability to use deductive thinking, interpret and evaluate information.

Creativity and the complexity of the tasks are aspects of thinking. Creativity differs among adults but it is thought to peak in the first half of adulthood. Educational activities can facilitate creativity. Learning tasks should be complex enough to challenge the adult learner but not be overwhelming. Older adults may have more trouble with complex tasks because unrelated cues interfere.

Enhancing Adult Achievement

Sjogren (1967) found that most adults can achieve their learning goals through perseverence. They usually study regularly, are committed, and demonstrate high achievement. Educators can enhance adult learning by including the following factors in their planning.

(a) Curriculum built on the learner's abilities, past experiences, and knowledge helps build confidence and minimizes disabilities and decline in the ability to learn.

(b) Clear instructions and understandable formats aid adults in relating new knowledge to their existing body of knowledge.

(c) A nonthreatening, encouraging environment aids in learning. A coffeepot, attractive materials, and memorable sessions aid in creating the learning environment. Some adults may prefer a highly structured class while others prefer an informal format. The environment preferred varies from the traditional schoolroom to an outreach center located in the community.

(d) Self-paced curricula.

(e) A variety of resources aid learning. Resources may include written media, audio-visual materials, peers, and role models geared to the preference of the learner. For example, the blue collar worker may prefer oral communication while the white collar worker may function successfully with written communication.

(f) Feedback helps to reinforce learning. Adults like to be aware of their progress and apply it in realistic situations.

(g) Adults have high standards of performance. The are accustomed to the workplace and may not be satisfied with performance rated 80%.

## References

Davis, Glen B. "Review and Synthesis of Research on Adult Learners in Vocational/Technical/Career Education." Proceedings of A Symposium on Adult Education in Vocational/Technical/Career Education at the Nation's Bicentennial Congress on Adult and Continuing Education, New York, 1976.

Grabowski, Stanley M. Training Teachers of Adults. National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education. Washington, D.C., 1976.

Hriceniak, J. and Mannebach A. "Lifelong Learning and the Vocational Educator." Journal of the American Vocational Association. November, 1978, pp. 38-42.

Knowles, M.S. The Modern Practice of Adult Education. Association Press, New York, 1970.

Knox, Alan B. Adult Development and Learning. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1977.

Liverright, A.A. A Study of Adult Education in the United States. Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, Boston University, 1968.

Sjogren, D.D. "Achievement as a Function of Study Time." American Educational Research Journal, 1967, 4, p. 337-343.

## CURRENT STATUS OF ADULT VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN ILLINOIS

Adult vocational education is undergoing changes in the State of Illinois. There is a growing recognition of the need to serve all adults, of the need for coordinated statewide planning, and of the need for articulation among the agencies and institutions that deliver adult vocational education.

### Administration

The sole agency responsible for adult vocational education in the state of Illinois is the State Board of Education. The Illinois State Board of Education assumes all powers and duties relating to vocational and technical education. Administration of adult vocational education is accomplished through the State Board by way of the Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education in the Illinois Office of Education. This administration is in accordance with regulations set forth by the U.S. Commissioner of Education for the administration of Federal Adult, Vocational and Technical Education acts and state plans dealing with adult, career and vocational education.

The Department of Adult Vocational and Technical Education (DAVTE), by means of a Joint Committee, develop policy on matters of mutual concern to elementary, secondary, and higher education such as occupational and career education, teacher preparation and certification, educational finance, articulation between secondary and higher education, research, and planning. The Joint Committee is composed of members from the DAVTE, the Illinois Community College Board, and the Illinois Board of Higher Education.

Funds received under the Vocational Education Act are used for programs in vocational education that can be demonstrated to prepare students for employment, be necessary to prepare individuals for successful completion of such a program, or be of significant assistance to people enrolled in programs designed to inform and aid in deciding on meaningful occupational choice. Exceptions are personal training programs under Section 135, renovation programs under subpart 4 of B, and homemaking programs under subpart 5 of part A of the Act.

The Vocational Education Act defines vocational education as organized educational programs directly related to the preparation for a career requiring other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree. "Organized educational" programs as interpreted by the State of Illinois, means instruction related to the occupation(s) for which individuals are being instructed or trained, obtaining, maintenance, and repair of instructional supplies, teaching aids, and equipment. The instruction may include classroom instruction; classroom related field, shop, and laboratory work; occupational work experience (i.e., cooperative education, apprenticeships); vocational related remedial programs; and related vocational student organizations.

Of the six groups listed by the DAVTE to be recipients of the vocational funds, four encompass the adult population, another group is persons in high school, and the final group consists of all age groups, but having special educational needs and other handicaps.

All of the State's vocational funds have a breakdown of approximately:

.10 - Vocational Education for Handicapped

.20 - Disadvantaged

.15 - Postsecondary and Adult Vocational Education

.55 - Secondary Vocational Programs

The DAVTE allocates the Federal and State vocational funds in support of vocational education programs to "eligible recipients" (agencies) on the basis of annual applications in response to the state plan.

The Vocational Education Act defines an "eligible recipient" as a local educational agency or a postsecondary educational institution. A board of education or other legally constituted local school authority having administrative control and direction of a public school system (district); or any other public educational agency or institution having administrative control and direction of a vocational education program, are defined as "local educational agencies." Local educational agencies may also include state agencies, public postsecondary educational institutions and public community colleges. Postsecondary educational institutions are nonprofit legally authorized institutions providing education for people over 16 years of age.

To obtain Federal and State funds for vocational education an eligible recipient must submit a written application annually to the DAVTE. The application is completed in the form of a local plan that must contain total program descriptions. Included in the plan is a description of vocational needs of students in the area or community, with an indication of how and to what extent the program will meet those needs. Other items to be submitted with the plan are extensive program and course descriptions; evaluation procedures to be used; description of approach to CETA activities; description of relationship between proposed program(s) and other related community programs; description of how the program addresses Special Needs; and descrip-

tions stating attempts to address Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments.

There are two major criteria the DAVTE uses in prioritizing applicants' proposals. The first priority is given to areas that are economically depressed, and areas of high unemployment. A second priority is to programs new to an area; programs designed to meet new and emerging manpower needs and opportunities in the area. The high priority for funding allotment are for programs dealing with greatest labor market needs and highest program cost. For occupational skill and training courses, funds are received at the highest level.

Total amount of federal and state funds in Illinois for FY 1980 is expected to be $85,456,600. Of the total amount $60,626,140 is to be allocated to the secondary level; $21,240,622 is to be allotted to the postsecondary level; and $3,589,838 is earmarked for the adult level. In FY 1981, the total amount is expected to exceed the FY 1980 total by $16,322,700. While this is a significant increase, the adult level increases only by $241,776, and there is a substantial increase in the allotment to the secondary level of $13,515,421.

Total population for 1980-81 is expected to be 11,349,084. The school age population is expected to be 2,363,517, which shows a decrease from enrollment figures of 1975-76, of 277,434. The figures show an estimated increase in total population, but a decrease in the school age population (5-17). That while an estimated 808,194 will be indicative of a preschool age population (0-4 years of age), the largest population will be the adult group (17-85) with a total of 8,177,373. (Calculations were derived from charts in the Illinois Population Projections 1970-2025; by the Illinois Bureau of the Budget and the Illinois One and Five-Year Plan.)

It is difficult to arrive at an estimate of persons who could benefit from adult vocational education. One way of identifying potential vocational students would be to address figures based on certain social and economic factors of concern, i.e.:

a. Mid-life career changers

b. Those re-entering the paid work force (displaced homemakers, penal incarcerated, handicapped, etc.)

c. Underemployed and unemployed adults (e.g., CETA trainees)

d. Those upgrading skills to maintain an occupation

e. Those needing vocational education for personal development

f. Senior citizens

g. Those to be trained for possible new industries coming into Illinois (e.g., two coal gasification plants in So. Illinois, gas pipeline from Midwest to Canada, etc.)

At this time there are no accurate figures on adult enrollment in vocational education. The information provided by the finance section of IOE on financing of programs, indicates support for "Adult Education." It deals mainly with providing adults with basic and secondary education (approximately 60,000 adults). There are no specifications for adult vocational education. However, the total adult population served by adult education is 90,000. Hence, one might assume that a certain percentage of the remaining 30,000 estimated adults are engaged in vocational programs. This estimate is derived from figures of speculation in the State One- and Five-Year Plan. (Other sources estimate the figure as high as 60,000.) The "adult education" program in Illinois is administered through approximately 100 public schools, community colleges, and/or private nonprofit agencies. Figures on number or types of institutions serving adult vocational needs are unavailable.

Due to lack of accurate enrollment reporting, the figures for adult vocational education programs are, at best, "sketchy."

The following are the instructions used for reporting adult enrollments:

Postsecondary refers to persons enrolled in vocational education programs to whom credit is given toward an Associate Degree. Persons who are pursuing a Certificate or License rather than an Associate Degree, even though they may be concurrently receiving credit toward an Associate Degree, shall be classified as ADULTS.

Adult (Long-Term) includes persons who are neither classifiable as 11th or 12th grade nor postsecondary and who are enrolled in programs of at least 500 contact hours duration leading to new occupational preparation. For adult programs offered at degree granting or similar institutions, where the program length is measured in credit hours rather than contact hours, 500 contact hours may be interpreted to mean 30 semester credit hours or 45 quarter credit hours. Persons registered either by the Federal or State government and currently enrolled in a related course leading to journey man status (apprentice program) will also be reported here, regardless of the number of contact hours.

Adult (Short-Term) includes persons 16 years of age or older who are neither classifiable as 11th and 12th grade, nor Postsecondary, and who are enrolled in an adult program of less than 500 hours duration. For adult programs offered at degree-granting or similar institutions, where the program length is measured in credit hours rather than contact hours, 500 contact hours may be interpreted as meaning 30 semester credit hours or 45 quarter credit hours.

The above is a description of the method for reporting adult enrollments. However, many of the programs now in operation either do not comply to the specifications or go unreported.

Definition

Clark (1973) conducted a statewide survey of adult vocational education. He defined adult vocational education as courses that provide non-credit vocational education to people who are not full-time students (p.ii). This definition is narrow and eliminates many of the adults who are enrolled in vocational education. For the purpose of this report, adult vocational education includes: (1) all vocational programs serving adults who have assumed responsibilities for themselves and look to themselves for direction. This excludes the high school graduate who continues directly into postsecondary vocational programs and does not assume adult responsibilities (i.e., self-supporting), and (2) all public institutions and agencies serving adults who are seeking educational activities but not leading to a baccalareaute degree. This includes credit and non-credit offerings.

Part of the problem in defining adult vocational education stems from procedures for reporting headcounts for funding purposes. The Federal Register gives the following definitions for reporting purposes.

"Adult programs" means vocational education for persons who have already entered the labor market or who are unemployed or who have completed or left high school and who are not described in the definition of "postsecondary program" (Sec. 11C; 20 U.S.C. 2461).

"Postsecondary program" means vocational education for persons who have completed or left high school and who are enrolled in organized programs of study for which credit is given toward an associate or

other degree, but which programs are not designed as baccalaureate or higher degree programs." (Sec. 110C; 20 U.S.C. 2310) (Federal Register, v. 42, no. 191, pt. IV, Oct. 3, 1977).

These definitions place emphasis on earning credits toward degrees rather than providing programs meeting adult vocational needs regardless of the choice to seek a degree or not. The State cannot change federal statute. Illinois utilizes the increased funding for "postsecondary" programs, rather than identifying adults seeking an occasional vocational class as "adults;" these people are often listed as seeking degrees with the traditional younger student. Therefore, it is difficult to know the number of adults being served in vocational classes. Programs outside the "postsecondary" classification do not have the "status" or equal priority as those in the classification. Clark (1973) found that no statewide systematic approach was used in determining student needs, use of advisory councils, pre- and in-service training or student services if they were utilized at all. (Note his survey was of non-credit programs which would be classified as adult programs) (p. v-7). No systematic planning exists statewide for adult programs (v.15). The junior college commitment to and involvement in adult programs was significantly lower than that of the high school. Clark indicated that the difference was due to the lack of sufficient funding. Interviews with current personnel in Illinois revealed similar findings about existing programs. Interviews with current personnel did reflect one very important change. They are interested in strengthening programs that serve adults.

Growing interest in adults is evident in research studies, evaluation reports and long-range planning documents prepared by depart-

ments of the Illinois Office of Education. The Master Plan for Higher Education Phase III states "special attention will be given to the population group over 25 years of age, which has been expanding rapidly in the form of part-time enrollments and which is not dependent on projections of annual numbers of high school graduates) (1976, p. 16).

The Board of Higher Education Master Plan (1976) emphasized the career education programs whose scope includes occupational, vocational, technical, and semi-technical fields designed to provide job training, retraining, and upgrading of skills to meet individual, local, and state manpower needs. The state plan identified a second mission of providing community education which includes non-credit adult courses in avocational, vocational, and general interest topics. The community college is to serve the adult community through public service activities outside the normal course structure. The Illinois Community College Board (ICCB) Master Plan directs community colleges to provide student support services which would include the adult student as well as the traditional younger student.

The ICCB Self Study (1978) recommended "the ICCB should assume a posture of advocacy of the full scope of the community college missions and give careful consideration to the adult continuing education function as a state level responsibility equal in importance to other college programs. It is further recommended that other state financing incentives to encourage development or expansion of adult continuing education be studied" (p. 72).

The Self Study recognized that the staff time available to identify educational needs of Illinois adults is inadequate but this is an important task if the lifelong learning needs of the adult are to be served.

Evidence of the heightening interest in serving adults is found in the 1977 Needs Assessment. DAVTE staff, teachers, administrators, were asked how well adults seeking skill upgrading were being served by the state. Lastly, the Assessment of Illinois Programs in Adult Basic Education recommended strengthening linkages between ABE programs and vocational training for adults in Federal ABE and Public Aid programs.

Program development rests predominantly with the local educational agency. Responsibility for adult vocational education is not clearly assigned to any agency or combination of agencies. Adult vocational education is offered in community colleges, high school programs, state institutions, adult service centers, and special programs. In one way, this is an advantage. The educational agencies are able to offer programs that appeal to different adult populations who have different learning styles and needs. A disadvantage to this system is that programs offering similar services may be duplicated within the community. Statewide and regional coordination and planning would help to eliminate unnecessary duplication.

Elimination of Barriers

Illinois educational agencies have attempted to remove many of the barriers that inhibit adults seeking vocational education. The educational agencies can deal more effectively with situational barriers such as scheduling or location than barriers relating to the potential learner's value system which require personal adjustment by the adult. Educational agencies have developed programs for specialized populations of adults which are located in neighborhood centers as well as campus settings. Scheduling has become more flexible to accommodate

the working adult attending school part-time and many programs are run with a minimum of red tape.

The cost of schooling is a barrier that prevents many adults from returning to school. At the present time, little financial aid is available to many working adults attending school part-time. The Basic Educational Opportunity Grant (BEOG) discriminates against the adult studying toward a degree. BEOG monies could be available if the number of hours were reduced for eligibility and the income ceilings were removed. The income ceilings are inappropriate for adults supporting families. To accomplish this the budget for BEOG monies would have to be greatly increased.

If BEOG grants were more accessible it would still leave many adults unable to attend educational activities because of financial reasons. Grants only cover books and tuitions and leave hidden costs such as child care and transportation unpaid. This is particularly a problem for women who must cover these additional costs on a lower salary than a man would probably earn. Welfare and CETA funding may be available to eligible adults but identifying and using these opportunities can be difficult and often do not provide sufficient assistance.

A barrier to advancing adult vocational education is the lack of available information about current programs in different occupational clusters and for specific adult populations. Interviews and discussions with Illinois personnel involved in adult vocational education indicated that many do not know the scope of available programs. Many educators and program planners are eager to learn about other programs, how clients are reached and served, funding information and evaluation

procedures. But because of the lack of centralized accessible information about existing programs, planners may have to move ahead by trial and error which is time consuming, costly, and may defeat serving the needs of adults.

The information network for adult vocational education within the State appears to be unstructured and in many cases based on informal communication. This can be a time consuming and ineffective system. The lack of information accessible to grassroot educators may be the result of the indefinite structure of adult vocational education on the state and local level. Responsibility for serving adult students is not clearly defined creating a competitive climate among educational agencies rather than one of cooperation.

A statewide or regional directory of educators and programs serving adult vocatonal needs might help alleviate the problem. The directory may be similar to the Adult Service Center directories. Included may be programs and contact persons of programs which have been identified as exemplary within occupational clusters and for client groups served. Each region may wish to develop a newsletter similar to the ABE regional newsletter to keep personnel informed of new developments and upcoming activities within the state region.

Characteristics of Illinois Adult Learners

The following section addresses the findings of two major studies which compared similar variables of adult learners (age, income, and past educational attainment). Neither study deals solely with participation in adult vocational education. The Study of Adult Learners (1978) examines adults who did and did not participate in organized instructional activities in Illinois. The study surveyed adults, 18 years and

older, concerning their participation during May 1975 through May 1977. The second study, conducted by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), (1978) surveys adults, 17 years and older, about their participation in "organized learning to meet the unique needs of persons beyond compulsory school age who have terminated or interrupted their formal schooling" (p. 1). The NCES survey has been conducted once every 3 years beginning in 1969. The findings are very similar although the Illinois data reflect a two-year span and the NCES statistics represent participation during one year.

Age. Nationally, the adult population is increasing; it grew 12.6% from 1969 to 1975. Participation in adult education is increasing at a more rapid rate; participation grew 30.8% during the same time span. Nationally, in 1975, 12.3% of the population participated in adult education, while 37.1% participated during 1975-1977 in Illinois. Participation nationally for the 17 to 34 year old bracket decreased from 36.3% to 33.8%. The decrease in the rate is the result of a drop in those adults engaged in full-time schooling. An increasing number of adults engaged in adult education in the 35 to 54 year group and the 55 and older group. The rates of participation increased from 11.0% to 13.4% and from 2.9% to 4.1% respectively. The Illinois Study of Learners reported that the majority (53.9%) of participants are between 18 and 34 years of age and 66% of all 18 to 24 year old adults who were questioned participated in adult education during some part of the two-year period. Both studies found that age is one of the most important variables indicating participation in adult education. A relationship exists between age and participation. The concept of Linear Life pattern helps explain why this relationship exists (Peterson, 1978).

Young people are generally interested in laying a foundation for their futures through organized learning. This learning may occur as on-the-job training, courses at the local community college at night, or as part of a baccalaurate degree program. During the middle years adults are concerned about career advancement and raising a family. During this period much of the vocational training is received on the job and further formal education must be weighed against present job and family responsibilities. Older people are more likely to engage in learning for personal satisfaction, including social and intellectual stimulation, use of leisure time, and coping with the problems of aging. Older adults may find restricted access to the community and its resources prevent them from engaging in adult education activities.

Race. The Illinois study revealed that the participation rates of blacks and whites were nearly the same, 36.4% and 38.2% respectively, while the Spanish surnamed adults had a lower rate (24.6%). The NCES study indicated similar findings; the participation rate for black adults was 16.1%, for white adults 19.4% and among other ethnic groups it was 25.2%. In Illinois, black adults comprised 10.6% of the population surveyed, 14.7% of the credit participants, and 6.1% of the non-credit participants. White adults comprised 82% of the population, 80% of the credit participants, and 89% of the non-credit participants.

Gender. Caution must be taken when examining adult learner characteristics by gender. Neither men nor women are a homogeneous group. Working men and women have more similar needs than working and nonworking women. The participation rates in Illinois of men and women is nearly equal, 37.7% and 36.8% respectively. Women comprised 58.4% of all those engaged in adult education. Women had a higher

non-credit participation rate while men had a higher credit participation rate. The national participation rate among women increased sharply, especially in the 17 to 24 year and 55 and over age brackets. The number of women participating on a part-time basis is also increasing nationally. As women become better educated, they tend to participate in educational activities at a greater rate than men. This finding may be due to the fact that advanced education is still a more unusual accomplishment for women than men; hence the increased motivation of the women is reflected in higher participation rates. Even with the higher rate, the Commission for Non-Traditional Study concluded that women's interests in vocational subjects is not presently being met (Cross, 1974).

Employment Status. The Illinois survey findings indicated that adults in the work force (defined as "all employed persons and persons looking for work") participated in adult education activities at twice the rate as those not in the work force (p. 28). Nonworking adults included homemakers, retirees, those unable to work, and those not interested in work. The adults looking for work had the highest participation rate (51%). The adults employed full-time had high participation rates in both credit and non-credit courses. The data indicated the majority of participants attended educational activities on a part-time basis. The NCES study indicated this trend is increasing nationally.

Income Level. As income increases so does the rate of participation in adult education activities. Approximately 20% of each income group in Illinois participated in credit activities, but participation in non-credit activities increased steadily with rising income level. Data

suggest that non-credit activity is considered a frill or luxury. Over half the adults participating in Illinois had a yearly income of $15,000. Nationally the family earning more than $25,000 increased its rate of participation in learning activities four times from 1969 to 1975. "This is most likely the result of more women entering the work force, which has increased family incomes . . . to compensate for inflation" (Study of Adult Learners, 1978, p. 24). Low income adults usually engage in education that will lead to new jobs whereas high income adults pursue education for career advancement motives (Peterson, 1978).

Past Educational Attainment. Both the Illinois and NCES study found "persons motivated by past success in educational settings are most inclined to continue to participate in instructional activities" (Study of Adult Learners, 1978, p. 4). The data showed that 37% of the Illinois population surveyed did participate; 13.1% in credit activities, 19.7% in non-credit activities and 4.3% in both types. 41% of all the participants had completed some college and yet they comprised 78.2% and 59.2% of all credit and non-credit participants respectively. The highest non-credit participation rate was among the adults holding graduate degrees. This may be due to business and industry offering in-house training.

Of the 59% who never completed any college work, 23% did participate in educational activities. One-third of the 15% of the adults without a high school diploma who did participate indicated no desire for further educational activities. Those with limited educational backgrounds have the lowest representation in adult educational activities. Less educated adults generally have negative perceptions about further education but when they do participate they are more interested in job related courses.

The more education people acquire, the more interested they are in participating in additional activities and the more sophisticated offerings they desire. This chain of events places greater demands on local, state, and federal planners. "Stated another way, adults that seek educational opportunities are those that have previously participated in an organized instructional activity rather than adults with limited education. The result of this trend in the long term would seemingly be an increased gap between the educational level of adult participants and the educational level of adult non-participants" (Study of Adult Learners, 1978, p. 4).

Regional Participation. Three major factors influence the participation of adults in educational activities within different regions in Illinois. They are:

1. types and numbers of institutions serving the region
2. proximity of the institution to the participant
3. availability of a diverse mix of course offerings

The greater the number of agencies serving the population, the greater the rate of participation. Region 7, including the University of Illinois, Eastern Illinois University, Parkland and Lakeland Community Colleges, and Danville Junior College, had the highest participation rate (42.4%). Region 9, including the Illinois Eastern Community Colleges -- Lincoln Trail College, Olney Central College and Wabash Valley Community College -- had the lowerst rate of participation (23.5%). Region 9 is not densely populated, have few public institutions, and participants would be required to travel a greater distance. Location is an influencing factor to those adults who are physically handicapped, geographically isolated, and aged with restricted mobility.

Courses Taken. The NCES study found 11.8% of the participants were enrolled in credit courses leading to a license or certificate, 24.5% in credit courses as part of a college degree, and 26% enrolled in non-credit job related coursework. Nearly half (48.7%) were enrolled in occupational training; by gender, 29% of the men and 19.5% of the women participating in educational activities were enrolled in occupational training. By educational level, 93.8% of those enrolled in occupational training had at least a high school diploma, while 56.4% had completed some college level work.

In general, those taking the greatest advantage of adult education are young, white, well educated adults who are currently employed in a professional or technical occupation and earning a good salary (Peterson, 1978). Differences exist between the adults taking credit and non-credit coursework in Illinois. Participation in credit courses is greatest when the adult is between the ages of 18 to 29. Income level has no significant effect. Participation in non-credit courses is greatest when the adult is between 18 and 54 years of age, and is in a higher income bracket. The participant usually has a high school diploma or a graduate degree and is employed full-time. Credit participation was highest in business and management and education while non-credit participation was highest in fine and applied arts and education.

Public community colleges, public universities, and private colleges provided the majority of credit courses (32.5%, 28.5%, and 15.5% respectively). Accessibility to public community colleges is one reason for the high rate as well as the community college focus on local needs, diverse programs, and the proximity to participants.

Business, public community colleges, and high schools were the agencies most often chosen by adults participating in non-credit activity in Illinois (15.4%, 13.5%, and 10,8% respectively). The NCES study found the rate of participation is increasing at two-year colleges and technical vocational institutions while participation in private schools and high schools is declining. Peterson (1978) feels the decline is related to much of the instruction not providing some type of credentialing.

Format Structure. The general structure, objectives and method of instruction in credit and non-credit courses differ. Accumulation of credit courses generally lead to a degree and share characteristics similar to other credit coursework in regard to structure, instructors, and clientele served. Courses generally are offered for one semester in a classroom setting. Upon successful completion of the courses a specific number of credit hours are awarded. The instructor is usually a full-time faculty member of the institution whose primary goal is instruction and evaluation. The students are usually homogeneous with respect to age and motives for participation, that is, to earn a degree which is viewed as an employment credential.

Non-credit coursework is more varied. More agencies and institutions offer these types of activities for a wider variety of reasons including occupational. The length of the activities vary greatly. Unlike credit work, job-related non-credit activities are often evaluated by the individual's supervisor. Instructors are usually part-time and may be volunteers. The clientele may be more homogenous than credit participants because courses are specifically directed toward adults who are related by occupation or social factors. The courses are designed

for those who want the course rather than those who need it. Cushman and Bail (1978) have identified three formats used in adult vocational education. The employee training model is used to provide instruction to improve on-the-job competencies and develop new skills for advancement. The instructional needs are usually assessed by the employer because job requirements are the main focus of the instruction. The material is presented in an operational or procedural manner using industrial standards of performance. Employees are the main client groups served by this model.

The business management model is useful for emphasizing decision-making and problem solving skills. Owner operators and managers often enroll in this type of course to analyze their businesses, to discover weaknesses, identify problems, and make decisions. Because the focus of the instruction is on making management decisions, the format used is often problem solving. The student and the instructor jointly assess the educational needs of the student.

The self fulfillment model is used to organize and conduct classes to assist adult learners pursue interests that the learner values and add meaning to his/her life. The content ranges from hobbies to job-related activities in which learners have identified an interest. This model is characterized by informality and variability.

Programs Serving the Handicapped and Disadvantaged

Many adults are served through programs associated with the regional adult service centers and adult basic education programs. The linkage of ABE programs with vocational education cannot be overemphasized. Literacy skills and/or a high school diploma or its equivalent are job requirements for most types of employment. Many of the pro-

grams are similar to Urbana's Adult Education Program. The Urbana program provides credit classes leading to a high school diploma, GED examinations, and APL (Adult Performance Level) courses. The APL program is designed to teach people how to solve problems encountered in everyday life. The curriculum includes areas of health, consumer economics, occupational knowledge and government and law. The adult must demonstrate competency in either the home management option, the advanced academic option or the occupational-vocational option. The occupational-vocational option requires work experience performance or acquiring the licenses or certificates needed to enter an occupation.

Programs are available during the day and evening in outreach centers, high school buildings and community colleges. Many have an open entry policy which allows the client to enroll and begin receiving instruction any time. Programs may provide day care, transportation, and personal counseling for the adult student. Some of the programs provide education for the limited English speaking adult. Although many of the programs are geared to serve the disadvantaged adult, classes for credit and for personal development are provided for any adult in the community.

The Assessment of Illinois Programs in Adult Basic Education (1973) found many programs emphasized basic literacy skills and provided little in developing coping skills, how to get and keep a job, improving health and nutrition, utilizing community resources and taking community action. More efforts are needed in career and vocational instruction and counseling. Exceptions were the vocational programs available in Springfield, Venice, Urbana, and Cairo. The assessment also noted students should be more involved in curriculum

development, identifying needs and providing feedback for program improvement.

The Adult Basic Education programs are currently being evaluated utilizing the three phase system (Phase Three System for Statewide Evaluation on Adult Education Programs: Team Member Handbook). The components and goals of the evaluation are:

1. Planning and Evaluation: Determine the adequacy of the planning and evaluation processes utilized within the agency and the products of those efforts.
2. Adult Education Programs: Determine the scope, quality, and effectiveness of adult programs provided to students.
3. Student Services: Determine the quantity and quality of support services provided to adult students.
4. Personnel: Determine the personnel qualifications, as well as staff development activities and needs of adult education administrators, instructors, and student services personnel.
5. Program Management: Determine the adult education program management structure and its effectiveness for managing the total occupational offerings.
6. Community Resources: Determine the extent and adequacy to which community resources are utilized by local agency personnel.

Several projects have been funded on the state and federal level to advance bilingual vocational education. For example, DAVTE funded Southern Illinois University - Carbondale (1976) to conduct a research project entitled "Studying the Relationship Between Bilingual and Vocational Education." In 1977 Elgin Community College received federal

funding to create an awareness in industry and colleges for the need for bilingual vocational education. The program objectives included identifying, recruiting, assessing, training, and placing 60 unemployed or underemployed Spanish speaking adults in entry level positions in the plastic industry in the Chicago area (Current Projects FY '77, p. 218).

The Bilingual Education Service Center located in Arlington Heights provides practitioners and educational agencies with up-to-date information on recent materials and information. Adult vocational educators may be able to utilize more fully the planning, implementation, and evaluation services provided to educators working with limited English speaking students.

Illinois implemented an innovative "Network of Exemplary Occupational Education Programs for Handicapped and Disadvantaged Students." The Network, consisting of demonstration sites at the secondary and postsecondary level, expanded the quantity and quality of special needs vocational education in Illinois. The sites provided educators the opportunity to view exemplary programs, identify resource material, consult with the staff, and participate in inservice activities relating to the handicapped and disadvantaged student. The network capitalized on the resourcefulness of the "grassroot" educator rather than research development from the "outside." The products were produced under optimum conditions, that is, to meet specific needs. Many of the products are limited because they were not field tested and the materials may not be as effective outside the development site. A second disadvantage of the system was that educational agencies often lacked funds to send educators to the site so that they might

consult about problems they were having. The current emphasis of the Network is dissemination of information.

A wide variety of programs are currently available or were available for the unemployed and underemployed adult in Illinois. The following descriptions are a small sampling of the programs.

1. Project Second Start: Elgin Community College received funding for 1977-78 to test a developmental approach to reduce sex role stereotyping. The program objectives included demonstrating and testing a career awareness model designed to reduce sex-role stereotyping in 60 unemployed or underemployed women. These women were to become more aware of their career options in nontraditional occupations and create an awareness in community colleges and trade schools of the need for prevocational programs for women in nontraditional areas.

2. Truman College, Chicago Urban Skills Institute, and The Native American Educational Services are currently involved in a project to conduct research to determine the demographic characteristics of the Native American population in Illinois, assess their need and interest in vocational education, determine the prevailing job situation, and develop appropriate programs and curricula to meet these needs.

3. Project Incentive, located in Chicago, works with individuals 18 to 25 years old who are economically disadvantaged, unskilled or unemployed. The objectives are:

1. to identify all necessary training components, plans and resources
2. to work closely with participating corporate personnel to develop trainee slots, plans, and appropriate supports

3. to recruit inner city participants
4. to provide 10 weeks of training based on employer input stressing interpersonal development
5. to place trainees in jobs

4. The Consumer and Homemaking Education Program (CHEP) is funded by DAVTE and administered through the Cooperative Extension Service. Programs reached 8,732 families in FY 1978 in Madison, St. Clair, Pulaski, Alexander, Jackson, and Cook Counties. The program payoffs are two-fold. CHEP assists low income families to develop management and homemaking skills. Low income adults are trained as paraprofessionals (thus providing necessary job skills and work experience for employment) to enter homes and conduct short programs concerning topics such as warrantees and nutrition. The paraprofessionals identify their clients' needs and future topics indirectly through conversation. Additionally, a bilingual Consumer Call In is available in the Chicago area to answer questions concerning consumer and homemaking topics. In FY 1978, 21,000 calls were taken.

Major Groups of Adults Who Can Benefit from Vocational Education

One way to begin to determine in which directions the State might move regarding adult vocational education is to identify the major groups of adults who need and can benefit from vocational education. In Illinois, the major groups consist of those adults who are:

1. seeking to upgrade occupational skills for purposes of occupational maintenance or advancement
2. planning or undertaking a mid-life career change
3. re-entering the paid work force after an extended absence

4. unemployed and/or underemployed
5. seeking vocational education for avocational purposes

The following sections will describe problems encountered in delivering vocational education to each of these groups, identify exemplary programs and available opportunities for each group, and make recommendations for action concerning delivery of vocational education to teach group.

Few of the programs examined are designed specifically for one major group of adults. Many programs serve more than one client group. For example, a vocational class in water treatment may have a variety of students including those who are completing a course sequence to earn a certificate to enable them to enter the work force for the first time. Other students may be completing the coursework toward a water treatment license in order to upgrade their current position, while still others may be developing job skills to reenter the work force. For this reason program planning should not only be "front loaded" to serve those entering the work world for the first time, but be diverse to meet the needs of all adults seeking vocational education.

## References

Bureau of the Budget, State of Illinois. Illinois Population Projections, Revised, 1977, (1970-2025) pp. 1-19 and 227-230.

Clark, Frederick A. Statewide Survey of Adult Vocational Education Programs and Services. Illinois State Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation, Illinois, 1973.

Cross, Patricia K., Valley, John R., et al. Planning Non-Traditional Programs. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1974.

Cushman, Harold and Bail, Joe. "Models for Adult Education," Agricultural Education Magazine. May, 1978, pp. 262-263.

Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education. Three Phase System for Statewide Evaluation on Adult Education Programs; Team Member Handbook. Illinois, 1979.

Educational Management Services, Inc. A Comprehensive Needs Assessment Study of Adult Vocational Education Programs and Service Within Illinois: Final Report. Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1977.

Federal Register, Volume 42, No. 191, Monday, October 3, 1977.

Illinois Board of Higher Education. Study of Adult Learners. State Board of Education and State Advisory Committee on Adult, Vocational, Technical Education, Illinois, 1978.

Illinois Community College Board. Report of the Self-Study Steering Committee. Springfield, Illinois, December, 1978.

Illinois Community College Board. Student Enrollment Data and Trends in the Public Community Colleges of Illinois: Fall 1978. Springfield, Illinois, December 1978.

National Center for Educational Statistics. Participation in Adult Education: Final Report 1975. Washington, D.C. 1978.

Peterson, Richard E., et al. Toward Life Long Learning in America: A Sourcebook for Planners. Publication draft. Educational Testing Service, Berkley, California, 1978.

Sellars, Lois A. and Gordon, Ruth (eds.) Current Projects in Vocational Education FY 1977. The Ohio State University: National Center for Research in Vocational Education. Columbus, Ohio, 1978.

Smith, Robert M. An Assessment of Illinois Programs in Adult Basic Education. Department of Secondary and Adult Education, Northern Illinois University, 1976.

State Board of Education. Five Year and Annual State Plan for Vocational Education in Illinois FY 1978-FY 1982. Department of Adult Vocational and Technical Education, 1977.

## VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR OCCUPATIONAL MAINTENANCE AND/OR ADVANCEMENT

The 1968 Vocational Education Amendments direct vocational educators to provide training for persons who have entered the labor market and need training or retraining to achieve stability or advancement in employment. Most of these individuals are adults. Enrollment projections indicate a large increase in the number of adults who want occupational courses providing training in the present occupation or upgrading of skills (Garner, 1978). In order for vocational education to serve this growing number of adults, educators must be aware of the changing nature of the work force, business and industry retraining needs, the characteristics, motives and needs of the adult seeking retraining, and barriers to participation in adult vocational education.

### Changing Labor Market

Many factors contribute to the changing nature of the labor market. These factors influence the adult worker's need for opportunities to retrain or upgrade occupational skills. One of the major changes in the labor market is rapidly changing technology. Advancing technology affects occupational stability and creates economic and social changes to which adult vocational education programs must respond.

Shifts in consumer demands and technological changes alter the need for manpower, creating the need for new training. The demand for some occupations is decreasing. More goods are being produced but fewer employees are required to produce them because of automation. Fewer entry positions are open but employees with more advanced knowledge and skills are necessary to operate the machinery.

While job opportunities in farming and the manual skills are decreasing due to technological changes, growth in a number of industries is creating a need for a variety of skilled employees. Service-related occupations employ the largest percentage of the working population. The rise and continued growth of service industries is due to population growth, increasing urbanization and its accompanying need for more city services, and rising income and living standards.

Growth also occurs in new and emerging occupations. These occupations result as a response to technology or shifts in consumer demand.

Many adult workers need vocational education to keep up with the technology of their occupation and to maintain a position of mobility by expanding their knowledge and skills. Few workers can receive initial job training and continue in their job for the length of their career.

Advancing technological changes cause new jobs to be created and other jobs to become obsolete. Those who lose their jobs due to obsolescence need to receive job related training to reenter the work force. Rapidly changing technology complicates training of new employees and puts tremendous pressure on the capabilities of existing craftsmen (Barker, 1979).

Inadequately trained personnel create problems. Maintenance is costly and incorrect maintenance is even more costly. Inadequately trained personnel may pose a safety threat. Poor worker performance due to lack of skill adds to the cost of the service or product. The insufficient numbers of skilled workers is growing. This shortage could influence the quality and nature of the industrial existence (Barker, 1979).

The work force changes in response to society's manpower needs. One of the best examples of meeting manpower needs occurred during World War II. Vocational education trained workers to produce the materials needed in the war effort. Today, vocational educators are involved in training workers for the energy industries.

The work place is undergoing a shift emphasizing the importance of human resources. The "heavy" industries of manufacturing and trades are being replaced by the fast growing service industries. (Service industries include government, transportation, public utilities, finance, real estate, health and others.) Beginning in the 1950's the service-producing industries became the major supplier of jobs in the job market. Currently 7 out of 10 people are employed in the service industries. The number of governmental service jobs is leveling off. In the past the government has expanded and created a vast number of new jobs. Currently 1 out of 3 jobs are connected with the government.

Other factors have affected the nature of the work force. One of the most dramatic changes has been the result of the civil rights legislation. The Equal Opportunity Employment laws have opened the workplace to women and minorities. It has attempted to provide equal pay for equal jobs. There are indications that the workplace is opening up even more by moving to equal pay for comparable jobs. Women have been entering the workplace in record numbers. Sixty percent of all new jobs from 1950 to 1975 were held by women. Today 60% of American women hold paid jobs outside the home (Ginzberg, 1979). Societal roles for men and women are changing. Women are beginning to enter nontraditional higher paying jobs just as men are entering nontraditional

jobs. The workplace will continue to change with respect to women and minorities. Many issues such as worker benefits and affirmative action are still being decided in the courts.

The society has a growing reliance on credentialling. Licensing and certification, regardless of the profession, is regarded as a quality control measure to ensure professional standards. Certificates and licenses granted by state agencies are often required to enter an occupation and many occupations require recertification. This is particularly true of the health related occupations. Many businesses are beginning professional certification programs for employees to increase their level of competence (Noel-Keller, 1979).

The rising number of illegal aliens is having an impact on the work force. These individuals are predominantly working in the unskilled entry level positions. This pushes unskilled legal citizens out of possible employment. At the same time rising inflation is affecting the work force. Many employers are forced to economize and cut down on the number of employees.

Another aspect of the changing workplace is employee mobility. Career mobility is becoming more frequent with individuals holding several jobs in a work career. This may include changing employers and/or occupations. In either case, retraining or upgrading of skills may be necessary. Workers are also geographically mobile. A sizeable portion of the population moves from one community to another for job related reasons.

The workplace is changing within the business or industry. There is greater concern in creating a workplace that is mutually beneficial to the employer and employee. The relationship between the employee and

the organization and nature of the work itself, the management system, relations with other co-workers, the social climate, the working environment, the employee's participation in decision making and opportunities for advancement are are being examined closely and being modified (Rosow, 1979).

If adult vocational education is to serve best the needs of society, industry and the adult learner, it must recognize and deal with the changing nature of the workplace. Changing social values and advancing technology have a direct impact on the training provided to adults who seek to retrain or upgrade skills through adult vocational education. The changing social values include (1) equal opportunity employment for women and minorities, (2) conservation of energy and other natural resources, (3) reduction of pollution and waste, (4) freedom to select individual life styles and (5) the need for finding self-worth in employment.

Business and Industry Retraining Needs

The retraining and skill upgrading of workers should incorporate the employee traits and skills deemed important by business and industry. If it does not address these needs adult vocational education cannot be successful. Vocational educators must be aware of local, regional and statewide manpower needs, the skills required by specific industries and the employee traits desired by employers.

Accurate forecasting of manpower needs is difficult but essential. Programs to retrain or upgrade employee skills should be based on accurate manpower forecasts. Otherwise, too few or too many workers will be employed to fill available openings. Manpower needs, manpower supply and occupational shifts affect manpower forecasts.

The difficulty in forecasting is attributable to many factors. Most employers are not able to predict accurately their own manpower needs within the next five years. The economy and consumer demands are difficult to predict. Training opportunities should be consistent with known or projected employment opportunities.

Adult vocational educators seek to provide programs to retrain and upgrade job skills that employer's need. The Comprehensive Needs Assessment Study of Adult Vocational Education Programs and Services Within Illinois (1977) reported business needs. The study found 43% of the responding businesses indicated that present employees had a major need for additional job related training. The types of workers in need of retraining include: professional/technical workers, craft workers, agricultural related workers, clerical workers, laborers, operatives, and salesworkers.

Forty-four percent of the employers responded that they also had difficulty finding adequately trained employees. The most difficult to locate and hire were craft employees, operatives, and professional/ technical workers.

Listed below is the employer need for workers who are in need of additional training or workers who are difficult to locate and hire, according to the size of the firm.

1. craft workers (especially for small and medium size firms)
2. professional/technical workers (especially for medium and large firms)
3. managers (especially medium and large firms)
4. operatives

5. sales (especially for small firms)

6. service workers (especially for medium firms)

Different training needs exist between small and large firms. Small firms need highly specialized workers who require a minimum of orientation to the business. Larger firms are more likely to seek individuals with general skills and provide in-house training to meet their business's specific operating procedures. Large firms are more likely to supply supplemental training because of their greater resources. Therefore, large firms have a greater need for employees to receive additional training as opposed to smaller firms who have a greater need for adequately trained entry personnel.

Employers reported they provided training in the following areas: 45% of the businesses provided supervisory training; 41% provided technical training; 40% provided job upgrading; 33% provided executive development and 28% provided apprenticeships.

Firms were asked if existing educational agencies were meeting their business's occupational training needs. Six percent felt their firm's needs were met very well. Forty-six percent indicated the training needs were being met well, while 46% felt they were poorly met or not being met at all. A combination of reasons may account for these findings. Few firms had developed linkages with educational agencies providing training. Therefore, educators were not fully aware of industry's needs and industry was not aware of training resources available through the school.

A second reason may be the differing goals adult vocational educators have in providing training programs and industry's purposes in training. Adult vocational education is student centered rather than

industry centered. It seeks to provide individuals with competencies that enable the individual to become employed or move from one job responsibility to another. The skills are specific to an industry but not necessarily to a specific firm.

The function of industrial training is improvement on the job resulting in increased profit. Industrial training is selective and provides training for as many workers as there are openings. Only enough training is provided for the employee to handle the new tasks effectively. Too much training would increase the probability of the employee seeking a new, higher paying job using the newly trained skills. Industrial training is expected to "improve employment skills, reinforce industrial goals, and cultivate policy image" (Drawbaugh, 1977, p. 27).

Adult vocational educators need to be aware of the aptitudes sought in employees by business and industry and incorporate them into the curriculum. Two surveys conducted in Illinois address this problem. The results are reported in the Comprehensive Needs Assessment Study of Adult Vocational Education Programs and Services Within Illinois, (1977) and Consortium of Vocational Educators and Employers (COVEE): The Past, Present, and Future Directions, (1977).

The findings reported in the Needs Assessment indicate the "ability to learn/potentiality/aptitude" the most important employee trait. Employers then rated (a) positive attitude toward work, (b) dependability/punctuality/respcnsibility, and (c) quality of work/accuracy/thoroughness as most important. Rated last were (a) the ability to relate to others, (b) competency in using tools, machines, materials, and (c) judgement/ability to make decisions and organize.

The COVEE report included the following ranking of employee attributes.

1. Attendance and dependability
2. Positive attitude
3. Accuracy and thoroughness
4. Initiative
5. Getting along with others
6. Meeting quality demands, efficiency
7. Judgement and planning
8. Technical knowledge
9. Competency with tools and equipment
10. Appearance, grooming (p. A-13)

It is important to note that "using tools, machines, materials," "technical knowledge," and "competency with tools and equipment" which relate directly to vocational education are listed as lower priorities.

Adult vocational educators need to examine their curricula in light of these findings. Potential employees need to be made aware of the traits employers are seeking.

Motives and Needs of Adults Seeking Retraining

Adult vocational educators must consider the motives, characteristics and needs of the adult seeking retraining and upgrading of skills. Successful educational programs are geared to the real problems, needs and interests of the adults being served.

Studies have found increasing numbers of adults seeking job related education. A College Board study found 40 million adults nationwide were involved in career changes, of which 24 million were

expected to return to school or obtain additional training to advance their careers. (40 million is 36% of the total population between 16 and 65 years of age.) Most of the 40 million are adults employed full-time in semi-skilled or unskilled jobs (Hricenak, 1978). The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) study of adult education participants reported 41.8% of those surveyed listed the main reason for taking courses was to improve or advance in current jobs (1975). The Illinois Learner Study indicated adults are seeking educational activities from colleges, business and professional organizations. The 10th Gallup Poll of the public's attitudes toward public schools reported 41% of those questioned indicated they were interested in taking courses or training in adult education. When asked about the courses they were interested in taking, they indicated job related courses as their first choice and vocational-technical courses as their third choice. The FY 78 Annual Report of AVTE stated 58,261 Illinois adults enrolled in programs "designed to upgrade their existing skills or to acquire new skills," (p. 5). This figure does not include adults enrolled in one- and two-year programs at the community college level. The Illinois Advisory Council on Adult Vocational and Technical Education recognized in the 1977 Annual Report that postsecondary programs have only served a small percentage of the adults needing training while the number of adults in need of such training grew.

Adults seek retraining and upgrading of skills for a variety of reasons. Copa (1976) in his study of the need for job-related training in Minnesota identified the following motives:

a. to prepare for a different unrelated job

b. to remain qualified in worker's present job

c. to train for the individual's first job

d. to prepare for re-entry into the workplace

e. to prepare for job promotion

The most frequent responses were preparing for an unrelated job and then to remain qualified at the present job. Only 9%, mostly in the 16 to 25 years of age group desired training for a first job. Individuals in the 16 to 35 years of age group accounted for a larger number of those seeking training for a job promotion or move to an unrelated job. To prepare for re-entry into the workplace was a more frequent response for women than men.

Marienau (1975) found adults seek educational opportunities (1) for personal satisfaction, (2) to break out of a dissatisfying job, (3) for job advancement, and (4) to enhance an adult's employment potential.

Adults seek vocational education to retrain or upgrade skills for other reasons as well. Fields such as health require relicensing and recertification in an effort to insure employees are aware of new developments in the field and to insure competency. Many adults, particularly women and low income adults seek adult vocational training in an effort to become qualified for a higher paying job. The economic pressures of inflation, rising taxes, and health care are straining already inadequate salaries. Ginzberg (1979) estimated that 40% of today's jobs will not support a family modestly.

The adult vocational educator needs to be aware of the adult learner's characteristics to plan programs that meet his or her needs. The Illinois Study of Adult Learners (1978) provided some insight.

The generalization is made that adults participate in credit instruction because these courses when taken in sequence lead to diplomas,

certificates, or degrees. The diplomas, certificates and degrees are regarded by employers as employment credentials.

The study found approximately 20% of all income groups participating in credit activities. Three-fourths were currently employed. Adults in the labor force participated at twice the rate as those not seeking employment. Those who had completed high school or more advanced education had higher participation rates than those who had not completed 12th grade. Past educational attainment is probably the most significant factor affecting participation in continuing education. The more schooling one has the more likely the individual is to value education as one begins to realize the benefits it can bring. Would-be learners that would benefit from job-related training may have different characteristics from those who participate. Potential learners are probably more interested in job related training as a means of improving the quality of their lives than present learners. Present learners enjoy a somewhat higher socioeconomic level (as evident by the ability to pay course fees).

Copa (1976) examined the self-perceived need for job related training in Minnesota. Because the results are based on perceived needs, two factors should be considered. Individuals expressing a desire may not actually seek job related training and many individuals will be in need of this type of training and not be aware of it. That is, they do not know the benefits of training or are unaware of their problems. The summary of results may give insight to adult vocational educators about adults in Illinois desiring job related training and their preference for delivery of that education.

Copa found the perceived need for training "decreased with the length of time since last enrolled in job-related training" (p. 38). Sixty-one percent of the adults who participated in training activities within the year expressed the desire for more training. Forty-two percent of those unemployed but looking for work and 33% of the employed adults indicated a need for vocational training. The largest groups were employed. Twelve percent of those not in the labor force expressed a need for training. The need for more job related training decreased with age. The 16 to 25 year olds indicated the largest need (43%) while those 46 to 70 years of age indicated the least need (13%). Men and women indicated approximately the same need (27% and 26%). Need for training increased with rising household income until reaching $15,000 to $20,000. Thirty-four percent of this bracket indicated need of job related training. The percentage of individuals needing training whose household incomes were above $20,000 stabilized at 31%. Copa reported that 70% of the individuals who expressed a need for job-related training would benefit from vocational education.

Barriers to Participation in Adult Vocational Education

Potential participants in adult vocational education may encounter barriers that delay or prevent their participation. Marrienau (1975) found most barriers are relatively easy to distinguish but very difficult to solve. Most barriers are interrelated and each cannot be solved independently. Barriers may be grouped into 5 categories: situational, attitudinal, physiological, academic, and institutional.

Situational barriers include lack of time, home responsibilities, lack of transportation, or cost. Lack of time and cost of programs are the most frequent reasons given for not participating. Home responsibilities

are more likely to be a problem for women than men. Attitudinal barriers involve the learner's perceptions about him/her self and the value of education. Potential adult learners may be prevented from participating by feeling they are too old to learn, fear that they will fail, lack of confidence, or boredom. The adult may not value education and recognize the potential benefits it has for improving the quality of life.

Physiological barriers include low lighting which makes reading difficult or inadequate physical strength. Examples of academic barriers are weak reading and math skills or inadequate study skills. The institution creates many barriers for adult learners. Scheduling may not accommodate the part-time student or locations may not be convenient. Appropriate classes may not be offered. Lack of information about available educational programs is one of the most common barriers.

Copa (1976) questioned survey participants about how they would like the educational programs presented. About half of those interested in job related training desired in-class instruction and the other half preferred on-the-job training. Those over 26 years of age more frequently identified in-class instruction while those 25 years and younger preferred on-the-job training. Two-thirds of the participants preferred evening classes, 44% indicated days would be convenient. Two to four days a week, three to five hour sessions during the fall or winter were preferred. Participants were willing to travel up to 10 miles for full-time training. 40% were willing to pay a nonrefundable fee to hold a place in the course. Younger adults indicated they were more willing to do this than older adults. Males were willing to pay higher fees for training than women.

Illinois Programs for Occupational Maintenance or Advancement

Illinois has many programs offered by multiple educational agencies for adults seeking retraining or upgrading of job skills. Many of these programs do not serve this population of adults exclusively, but rather, a wide variety of adults who seek education for various reasons. The following is a description of activities that are representative of programs in Illinois.

Work Education Councils operate in Collinsville (COVEE), East St. Louis, Chicago Heights, and Peoria. These councils are funded in part by DAVTE, and the Chicago Heights and Peoria councils receive monies from the National Manpower Institute. The councils are community-based organizations composed of representatives from education, government, business and the community at large. Although each of the councils is structured somewhat differently, the main objective is economic development. The councils' efforts include helping to fund a computerized career information system in Peoria, developing economic profiles of the community and disseminating the information, providing teacher training, surveying businesses, advising and consulting, and providing classroom resource people. The secondary and postsecondary educational agencies benefit from the work educational councils as do the adults they serve.

Many adults seeking upgrading and retraining participate in training provided jointly by a business, an educational agency, and CETA prime sponsors. Representatives from all groups involved work together to develop training programs that meet company needs and make the best use of the available labor pool. They collaborate on the design of the program, the selection and screening of trainees, selection

of training sites, securing of equipment, payment, and placement. Programs can be in-house or located in area vocational centers, community colleges, or other available sites. The delivery method is flexible to include classroom presentations and on-the-job training.

CETA and the Department of Business and Economic Development sponsor the Industrial Training Program. The program is aimed at improving the skills of currently employed workers and providing entry-level jobs for CETA-eligible on-the-job training participants. Besides promoting on-the-job training, the program also helps to recruit or promote the expansion and retention of businesses in Illinois. Title II of CETA provides funds to train private or public workers who would normally not have advancement opportunities and to retrain public and private workers who are to be laid off and are unable to find new jobs without further training.

High Impact Training Services (HITS) are available to firms new to Illinois or those wishing to expand. Local educational agencies work with specific firms to develop short term training programs for the business. HITS is a cooperative effort among the educational community, the Department of Business and Economic Development, and the State Chambers of Commerce.

Employers may also contact educational agencies to provide training tailored to the firm's specific retraining needs. Program costs are the responsibility of the employer. Community colleges, in particular, are expanding their efforts to provide technical assistance and training programs to local employers.

Adults may enroll in classes and workshops offered by local school districts, area vocational schools, community colleges, and some univer-

sity sponsored programs. The School of Technical Careers (STC) located at Southern Illinois University-Carbondale is an example of a university level program. STC cooperates with community colleges and other colleges in the degree programs offered. Tuition costs are usually paid by the participant and sometimes shared by the employer. Adults who enroll in the courses offered by the various agencies may enroll in a single course or workshop or in a planned sequence leading to an associate degree.

Adults may also receive retraining through apprenticeship programs. The trainee gains skill competency by working on-the-job with a journeyman for a designated time and receives related classroom instruction which may be provided by local educational agencies. All apprenticeship programs in Illinois are coordinated by the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training.

DAVTE has funded a number of projects which are applicable to the needs of the working adult. For example, "CONSERVA" Curriculum Resource Guides project was funded for 1978-79 to provide training manuals in new and emerging occupations. The curricula guides are in the following fields:

a. biomedical equipment technician
b. industrial hygiene technician
c. podiatric assistant
d. therapeutic recreation technician
e. swine confinement facility assistant manager
f. solar energy technician
g. halfway house resident manager

These guides are appropriate for the postsecondary level and secondary level. Adults seeking entry level skills or retraining in a field related to their present job may use curriculum materials such as these.

Conclusion

A need exists for adults to retrain and upgrade job-related skills. Adult vocational education does provide a large percentage of the current job-related training. Currently the major emphasis is on the entry level job but vocational education is providing more and more retraining for those adults who have already entered the labor market. Upgrading employee competencies is compatible with the needs of business. To prosper and grow, industry must utilize and upgrade its human resources. Adults seek training programs to develop new skills. These new skills allow them to remain on their current job, advance within an occupation, or begin new and challenging careers.

Adult vocational educators will need to explore more fully the training needs of adults and businesses in Illinois. Rapidly changing technology and consumer shifts in demand for goods and services make employee retraining and upgrading essential. Educators and industry need to work cooperatively to establish ways the employee can easily enter and exit the workplace for retraining opportunities. Easier entry and exit may be facilitated by business providing paid leaves for advanced education and/or partial or full payment of the adult learners fees and tuition. Adult vocational educators and business can work cooperatively to provide effective retraining programs within the firm or business. Adult vocational education can continue to expand the retraining programs that are available.

## References

Barker, Don. "Industry's Struggle for Skilled Workers," Voc Ed, February, 1979, pp. 26-28.

Consortium of Vocational Educators and Employers. COVEE: The Post, the Present, and Future Directions. Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education, Springfield, Illinois, 1977.

Copa, George H. and Maurice, Clyde F. People's Need for Additional Job Training: Procedure for Assessment. Minnesota Research Coordinating Unit for Vocational Education, University of Minnesota, 1976.

Drawbaugh, Charles C. "Orchestrating Voc Ed with Industrial Training," American Vocational Journal, April, 1977, pp. 27-33.

Educational Management Services, Inc. A Comprehensive Needs Assessment Study of Adult Vocational Education Programs and Services Within Illinois: Final Report. Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1977.

Garner, William. "Population and Enrollment Prophecies for Adult Education," The Career Educator, Dubuque, Iowa, 1978, pp. 30-39.

Ginzberg, Eli. Informal discussion with faculty and students of the Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, April 18, 1979.

Hriceniak, J. and Mannebach A. "Lifelong Learning and the Vocational Educator," Journal of the American Vocational Association. November, 1978, pp. 38-42.

Illinois Advisory Council. Annual Evaluation Report of the State of Illinois Advisory Council on Adult, Vocational and Technical Education, Springfield, Illinois, 1976.

Illinois Board of Higher Education. Study of Adult Learners. State Board of Education and State Advisory Committee on Adult, Vocational, Technical Education, Springfield, Illinois, 1978.

Marrienau, Catherine. Study of Barriers to Participation in Post Secondary Education as Perceived by Adults in West Central Minnesota. West Minnesota Consortium for Community Service, 1975.

National Center for Educational Statistics. Participation in Adult Education: Final Report 1975. Washington, D.C., 1978.

Noel, James and Keller, Clyde. "Professional Certification, Meeting an Educational Need," Lifelong Learning: The Adult Years. February, 1979, pp. 12-13, 49.

Rosow, Jerome. "The Workplace: A Changing Scene," Voc Ed. February, 1979, pp. 22-25.

# VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE UNEMPLOYED AND/OR UNDEREMPLOYED

## The Unemployed

In January, 1979, there were 5.9 million people unemployed in the United States accounting for an unemployment rate of 5.8 percent. The jobless rate for adult men was 4 percent, for adult women, 5.7 percent and for teenagers 15.7 percent (1, p. 5).

The 1979 jobless rate in Illinois is slightly above the national rate. There are an estimated 322,000 persons within the state who are unemployed for a jobless rate of 6.3 percent (2, p. 88). As in the rest of the nation the jobless rate for women (6.8 percent) is higher than for men (6.3 percent). For teenagers the unemployment rate is 16.3 percent.

The unemployment rates for both the United States and Illinois represent unemployment for those in the labor force. The civilian labor force comprises the total of all civilians classified as employed or unemployed in accordance with criteria established by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Therefore, "the official unemployment totals provide only a partial indication of the real extent of unemployment." (3, p. 17).

There are segments of the population which are not included in the labor force. Those not in the labor force include all civilians 16 years and over who are not classified as employed or unemployed. These persons are further classified as engaged in own home housework, in school, unable to work because of long term physical or mental illness and other. The "other" group includes, for the most part, retired persons, those reported as too old to work, the voluntary nonworker, and seasonal workers (1, p. 168).

Among those not in the labor force, is also a group often referred to as "discouraged workers." They are people who have looked for work but were unable to find a job, believe there is no work available, lack necessary skills for employment or believe employers would consider them too young or too old for work. In 1977, the total number of discouraged workers in the United States was approximately one million persons. (1, p. 25). This figure is up from the 1974 total of 686,000 such persons (4, p. 10). "Among this group, a disproportionate share is represented by groups experiencing higher levels of unemployment. In 1976, women accounted for 65% of the discouraged workers, youth (16-24 years old) 29%, blacks and other minorities 25%, and the elderly 21.5% (4, p. 10).

The Commission on Federal Paperwork (1977) defined as unemployed "an individual who does not currently have paid employment but who is seeking work (5, p. 6). Thus, the important consideration in classifying the unemployed is that individuals are seeking employment and that they are participants in the labor force. The unemployment rates do not, therefore, provide a total measure of unemployment since they do not consider those who have dropped out of the labor force. "The jobless rate which is an estimate of the percentage of the potential labor force without jobs is always much higher" (6, p. 23).

Reasons for Unemployment

Reasons for the high joblessness and high unemployment rates recently experienced in the nation and in Illinois are many and varied.

The structure of the labor market has changed. No longer does the labor force consist primarily of mature men with a long attachment to it. Rather, the labor force shows greater proportions of youth,

many with no previous work history; women, who enter, leave and re-enter the labor market, and minorities who have historically had higher unemployment rates than other groups. (5, p. 14). These groups all have above average unemployment rates and they have entered the labor force in increasing numbers since the mid-1960's adding almost one million persons to the ranks of the unemployed nationally (7, p. 4). This changing demographic structure of the labor force in Illinois, with a record number of women and youth entering the labor market has resulted in higher overall unemployment in the State (2, p. 45).

Three other groups have also boosted unemployment rates. Older workers are remaining in or re-entering the work force due to the economic pressures of inflation, recent changes in mandatory retirement policies, and legislation against age discrimination in employment.

New antidiscrimination legislation for [illegible]ndicapped provided by sections 503 and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and improved educational opportunitites offered under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, the Higher Education Amendments of 1972, and the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 and 1976, have increased the numbers of handicapped persons in the labor force.

The decrease in the Armed Forces from a peak of 3.5 million in 1968 to 2.1 million in 1976 placed an additional 1.4 million veterans into the civilian labor force during that period (8, p. 7). The unemployment problems of the younger members of this group continue to be problematic.

The causes of unemployment are as diverse as the individuals who are unemployed. However, groups of unemployed also share common

problems relating to employment. The six groups identified are currently and some have historically experienced difficulty in the labor market. Therefore, special attention has been given to defining some of their problems in later sections of this report.

Demographic changes receive much of the attention given to unemployment problems by the media. However, many other changes are taking place and have taken place which also have adverse effects on employment. The decline in economic development of large urban areas is one such change. Today, economic growth has shifted from the cities to the suburbs and to semi-rural areas (9, p. 21) (10, p. 18).

"In the 1960's a dramatic report was written called The People Left Behind. It described the plight of those rural Americans who had not gone to the cities. They were unskilled and poor people. Now, the same phenomena is happening in our cities. The urban cores of the largest cities contain growing proportions of poor, unemployed and never-employed people, isolated from access even to jobs in the outer rings of their own communities," (11, p. 6).

In Illinois, population movement within the state has been most extensive in the Chicago area. During the decade of the 60's, population and job shifts from the city of Chicago to the surrounding suburbs accelerated, continuing into the seventies. Employment data available for that period indicates a net loss of 200,000 jobs in Chicago or 12 percent. This is more than double the rate of the population decline of 5 percent during the 1960-70 decade. Conversely, jobs in Chicago suburbs have increased at twice the rate of the population growth creating labor recruitment problems in these areas while boosting labor surpluses in the inner city (2, p. 19).

The movement of manufacturing out of the central cities has left pockets of unemployment and increased isolation of unskilled workers in central cities from employment opportunities (10, p. 19).

Some writers believe unemployment compensation, welfare, social security and other transfer payment programs are disincentives to employment. Lecht (1977) believes "the mushrooming growth of income-security transfer payment programs provide an alternative to jobs as a source of income for many persons" (7, p. 3).

Feldstein (1973) cites several adverse effects of income security transfer payment programs. Such payments in the form of unemployment compensation "substantially reduces -- often almost eliminates the cost of temporary unemployment" (12, p. 40). "More generally, for all types of unsteady work -- seasonal, cyclical, and casual -- it raises the net wage to the employee relative to the cost to the employer" (12, pp. 41-42).

The first of these effects may provide an incentive to inappropriately long durations of unemployment. With less economic pressure to obtain a job immediately unemployed workers may pass up job offers in their own line of work and investigate several job possibilities over a period of several months before accepting new employment. Part of the search may also consist of delaying job acceptance in hopes of receiving better job offers at higher wages (12, p. 39).

"The second effect provides both employers and employees with the incentive to organize production in a way that increases the level of unemployment by making the seasonal and cyclical variation in employment too large and by making casual and temporary jobs too common" (12, p. 42).

In the case of welfare payments, an unemployed person, after considering cash and benefits in the form of food stamps, housing assistance and medicaid (if on AFDC) may find he or she cannot earn an income comparable to that they are receiving. This is often true for those with few skills and/or little education. Therefore, the decision not to seek employment may have a very rational basis (7).

"Unemployment and related benefits are believed to have contributed to both the duration and frequency of unemployment in Illinois" (2, p. 45).

When the general economy of the nation or region is in a slump the duration and frequency of unemployment is often beyond the control of individual workers. Further, those workers who qualify for unemployment compensation are more likely to be those whose employment patterns tend to be stable and who are employed in the primary labor market holding good jobs.

Many workers who become unemployed were formerly part of the secondary labor market where low pay, instability, lack of opportunity for advancement, unpleasant working conditions and sometimes unfair and unsympathetic supervision cause high turnover (9, p. 29). These workers often do not qualify for unemployment, often experience longer periods of unemployment and suffer much hardship during periods of unemployment.

In today's inflationary society, the ability of a wage earner to extend the job search while on unemployment compensation is also dependent on the number of secondary wage earners in the family." The typical family acquires its annual earned income by having secondary earners in the labor market. Many of these secondary earners are

part-time and intermittent workers but their earnings are important in achieving and maintaining the family's standard of living."

"More than one-half of today's unemployed come from families that have one or more members with a full-time job" (3, p. 26). "The plurality of earners in a family may ease and cushion the burden of unemployment for some unemployed individuals and their families" (13, p. 21).

Nrvkrt (1965) stated that "of its very nature an industrial system produces unemployment, without any necessary fault on the part of the unemployed and that most of the cost of caring for the unemployed can properly be assessed against this system as a integral part of the cost of doing business" (14, p. 1). These costs are rising. Transfer payments alone "have come to represent the most rapidly growing component in the Federal Government's Budget, (and many state budgets). Federal expenditures for income security transfer payments programs, according to a recent Brookings Institution study, have increased from $22.6 billion in fiscal year 1960 to an estimated $183 billion in fiscal 1977. This represents a growth from 24 to 42 percent of the Federal Government's budget" (7, p. 6). Needless to say, the costs of unemployment are high and they continue to increase.

The final cause of general unemployment to be discussed is the changing demand for skills. "This changing demand has accentuated some problems that have long existed in the labor force. The number of job opportunities for the unskilled and the poorly educated is declining and the gaps between skills which are in demand and the skills possessed by the unemployed is widening" (15, p. 2).

Anytime one looks at the problems and patterns of employment and unemployment one positive correlation stands out unmistakably, that of employment with education.

The changes taking place in industrial organizations and technology, techniques of production and rates of obsolescense in products are generating a constantly changing demand for new skills (1). These changes require employees to have skills that are commensurate with these changes. Persons with low skills and limited job experience will face increasing difficulty obtaining stable employment with adequate earnings in this changing labor market (8, p. xi). The problems of this group are compounded by the application of technology to areas of growth such as the service sector where about one-third of jobs are low skilled and the educational upgrading of jobs which cause them to compete with college graduates (8) (10). A high school diploma is becoming the minimum essential education requirement for a job. "Failure to complete high school is becoming a more serious handicap in the labor market as the general level of education rises and as employers raise hiring standards" (14, p. 33). Given the high numbers of new entrants to the labor force, many of whom do have good educational backgrounds, those with educational deficiencies will experience more unemployment. This is true for older workers who have lower average levels.

An important aspect of unemployment not yet discussed is the social and human cost involved. This can be summarized using a quote from the 1963 Report of the Governors Committee on Unemployment.

> "In a society where the common belief is that men who work are useful and those who do not work are not useful, employment becomes more than a problem of economics: it becomes one with deep moral and personal undertones. A job

> not only provides income, it provides standing in the community and self-respect. A job, and not just the income from it is as much a necessity for the average American as is his daily bread, the clothing he wears and the shelter over his head.
>
> Continued unemployment strikes at the basic existence of every person so affected. In addition to its ravages in human values, however, unemployment above the irreducible minimum represents an economic loss to the community -- and a sociological problem with grave implications for the future" (16, p. ii).

## Special Groups of Unemployed

### Women

One cannot discuss the unemployment of women or how adult vocational education may impact unemployed women without first looking at some of the changes in their labor force participation. In Illinois in 1979 there are almost six million (5,841,300) females sixteen years of age and over. Of this number approximately 49% are in the labor force. The participation of women in the labor force in Illinois as in the nation has grown each decade. In Illinois the labor force participation of women was twenty-nine and seven-tenths (29.7) percent in 1950, thirty-six and two-tenths (36.2) percent in 1960, forty-three and two-tenths (43.2) percent in 1970 and in 1979 is projected at forty-eight and nine-tenths (48.9) percent (2, pp. 16-17).

Nationally women reached a milestone in their labor force participation during the summer of 1978. During that summer, for the first time half of all American women over age sixteen were participating in the labor force (17, p. 29).

For certain age groups of women the labor force participation rate has been well over fifty percent for some time. The pattern of labor force participation changed dramatically in the early 1960's with the

sharpest increase in participation among women 20 to 24 and 25 to 34 years of age. By 1974, 61% of the 20 to 24 year old women were in the work force. Fifty-two percent of women 25 to 34 were in the labor force as were 55% of women 35 to 54 and 54% of those 18 and 19 years of age. Lowest rates of participation were among the young (16 and 17 years of age) and older.

In 1978, the percentage of 20-24 year old women participating in the labor force was almost 70%. The rate of participation for women aged 25-44 years old was over 60% (17, p. 29).

One of the most striking changes that has taken place in the female labor force has been the increase in the labor force participation of women with children under 18 years of age. "Since the period immediately preceding World War II, the number of women workers has more than doubled but the number of working mothers has increased more than tenfold. In fact, in 1976, the number of working mothers surpassed that for all women" (19, p. 1).

"Most of the 1978 labor force gains occurred among women under 35. Large numbers of women 25 to 34 years old -- 71% of them mothers with dependent children -- continued to enter or re-enter the work force, despite the pressures of combining a job with family responsibilities" (20, p. 2).

There are many reasons for the increased labor force participation of women:

1. Societal and technological changes.
2. Women are marrying later and having fewer children.
3. The large increase in the number of families headed by women. The increasing divorce rate (one out of three marriages ends in divorce) makes it necessary for more women to work.

4. The increase in the life expectancy of women.
5. The rapid growth of white collar jobs, and in the service sector in which women are primarily employed and the increase in part-time employment opportunities.
6. The "women's movement" and changing attitudes toward careers for women outside the home.
7. Legislation and government action such as equal employment and equal pay laws prohibiting employment discrimination based on sex.
8. Increased educational attainment among women.
9. Increased inflation and economic need. (17) (18).

A U.S. Department of Labor publication, Why Women Work, states "women work for the same reasons men do ... most importantly, to provide for the welfare of themselves, their families, or others" (21, p. 1).

Although all working women contribute to the well being of themselves and/or their families, nearly two-thirds of the women in the U.S. labor force in 1977 very likely worked to support themselves and their families, or to supplement the low incomes of their husbands (21, p. 1).

A proportionately higher percentage of women of minority races work because of economic need. In 1977, only about 1 out of 3 minority women in the labor force had a husband whose income was $7,000 or more. About four-fifths of the minority women workers were never married, widowed, divorced, or separated, or had husbands earning $10,000 or less (21, p. 1), (22, p. 1).

From these figures, it is evident why more women have entered the labor force. However, labor force participation does not result in employment for all participants of any group. In fact, increased participation of women has resulted in larger proportions of women being classified as unemployed. As a result of increased need to work, unemployment among women has become a significant problem among women. "The latest statistics on Illinois joblessness by sex reported a 6.8 percent unemployment rate for females" (2, p. 47).

The number of unemployed females in Illinois in 1979 is shown in the following table.

Unemployed Females 1979 State of Illinois
(Number in Thousands)

| | |
|---|---|
| ALL RACES | |
| 16 years old and over | 146.8 |
| 16 - 19 year olds | 30.4 |
| 20 - 24 year olds | 26.8 |
| 25 - 34 year olds | 34.2 |
| 35 - 44 year olds | 19.1 |
| 45 - 64 year olds | 31.0 |
| 65 and over | 5.4 |

Source: Annual Planning Report Fiscal Year, 1979
State of Illinois, Illinois Bureau of Employment
Security Appendix Table XV.

In addition to women who are unemployed, there are other women who are discouraged workers who are not looking for work because they think they cannot find a job, or are working only part-time though they would prefer full-time employment. Concern about unemployment

among women has heightened in recent years. This concern is a reflection of the marked increase in the size of the female labor force coupled with a worsening in the unemployment rate of women as compared with that of men (18, p. 64).

Among women, as among men, there is a pronounced association between education and skill on the one hand and unemployment on the other, with unemployment decreasing with higher education and skills. Yet, even among persons at the same age and educational level, the unemployment rate for women tends to be higher than the rate for men. However, the more education a woman has the more likely she is to obtain employment and to earn more (18, p. 67). Women in the labor force have more schooling on the average, than women not in the labor force (18, p. 182).

The employment problems of women in the labor force are intensified by a number of factors. First, many women are new entrants or re-entrants and consequently have few contacts and little or no work experience. Women re-entering the labor force also frequently find their skills so diminished or outdated as to require additional training before they can get a job (4, pp. 11-12).

Secondly, the inter-labor force mobility of women, that is, movement into and out of the labor force (as compared to the intra-labor force mobility) (movement within the labor force of men) contributes to higher unemployment rates for women. (18, p. 67).

Thirdly, more women compared to men seek part-time employment. Often women seek such work within rather strict limitations of time and distance from home. (18).

Fourth, women are concentrated in the clerical, and service sectors of the economy. For example, of the 244,646 active job seekers registered with Illinois Job Service at the end of September, 1977, 49% were female with the largest concentrations of female workers in the clerical and service sectors (23, p. 3). Women were 79% of all clerical workers in 1977, but only 5% of all craft workers; 62% of all service workers but only 43% of professional and technical workers; and 62% of retail sales workers but only 22% of nonfarm managers and administrators (24, p. 3).

Fifth, women are more likely to become discouraged with job prospects and discontinue looking for work. This is due partially to the fact women are concentrated in low-paying and low skill jobs and many women are competing with other better trained women as men for entry level positions (25).

Sixth, sex discrimination although becoming less of a barrier is still limiting the participation of women in some employment areas. Traditional ideas about appropriate roles and jobs for women, myths about their physical and mental capabilities, their family responsibilities and their need for jobs that pay well have had the effect of limiting their employment options, especially in nontraditional job roles (26, p. 9).

Seventh, the lack of child care facilities and/or the high cost of such services where they exist prevent many women with children from working.

Eighth, transportation is a problem for many women who would like to work especially if they have small children. Lack of transportation limits job search and the area in which a woman may work. Thus, the chances of finding work are further limited.

Ninth, many women lack information about training and education opportunities which would help prepare them for employment.

Improved adult vocational education services to women can aid in alleviating some of the employment problems they currently face. However, in providing education to women it is important their employment be viewed as of primary importance and all programs be available to them. Viewing their training and education in this way will permit them to acquire the skills needed for competing in today's labor market.

Vietnam-Era Veterans

Vietnam-Era veterans have been the subject of recent reviews and evaluations by veteran organizations, journalists and the Congress. In addition, they are often singled out as a target population to be served by employment and training legislation (27, p. 9).

Some Vietnam-Era veterans have faced high levels of unemployment since returning to civilian life. To combat some of the unemployment problems faced by these veterans, the United States Congress enacted the Vietnam-Era Veteran Readjustment Assistance Act of 1974. Under the provisions of this act, agencies having contracts of $10,000 or more with the federal government are required to take affirmative action measures in the recruitment of Vietnam-Era veterans for employment and training programs (28, p. 52).

The act has not had much direct impact. It seems to be the result of the nation's conscience toward a group whose patriotism often seemed to be less rewarded than those who evaded service legally and illegally (29, p. 146). "As the Vietnam war became increasingly unpopular, the special status of being a veteran began to evaporate in the nation as a whole, an experience with which previous generations of returning

veterans did not have to contend. [illegible] in turn eased the social pressure upon employers to extend themselves as they had done after World War II and the Korean conflict" (29, p. 122).

The Universal Military Training and Service Act guarantees anyone who held a job at the time of entry into the military the right to have that job back within 90 days after separation from the military if the total service performed does not exceed four years. A study by the Governor's Office of Manpower and Human Development State of Illinois found 38% of Vietnam-Era veterans sampled tried to get their preservice job back and 89% succeeded. Of those who tried to get their preservice jobs back and failed, 53% sought help from local and state agencies (31, p. 14). The rate at which Vietnam-Era veterans were returned to the civilian labor force has a substantial impact on the pace at which they could be absorbed into jobs (27, p. 18).

The rate of return coupled with recessionary conditions of the economy during the time these veterans were returning further compounded the problems of employment. "Among these problems was unprecedented difficulty generated by trying to turn the nation from a partial wartime to a peacetime economy. The duration of the war -- more than ten years -- produced substantial numbers of veterans who were in need of post-service employment" (29, p. 122).

Those in the draft-age population who had managed to postpone or avoid altogether the obligation of military service were able to keep pace with the changes in the labor market and to acquire civilian work experience and education which put them in a relatively better position in the labor market.

Although, those who served in the war often obtained valuable training, much of it was not readily transferrable to the civilian labor

market (29, p. 123). Also, veterans often require a longer job search because they have been out of the civilian labor force for a prolonged period of time (27, p. 20).

As of June 30, 1976, there were an estimated eight million Vietnam-Era veterans in the United States (29, p. 123). In Illinois during 1977 the total population of Vietnam-Era veterans between the 20-34 years of age was estimated at 338,239, with 321,664 of this age group in the labor force. Of those in the labor force, 22,120 were unemployed for an unemployment rate of 6.9%. Just over 62% of those unemployed (in keeping with the state's population distribution) were residents of the six-county Chicago SMA (28, p. 52).

Unemployed Vietnam-Era Veterans: 1977 Annual Averages Population, Labor Force, and Unemployment

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Illinois, total | 338,239 | 321,664 | 22,120 | 6.9% |
| Chicago SMSA | 210,269 | 199,966 | 13,579 | 6.8 |
| Bloomington SMSA | 3,730 | 3,548 | 165 | 4.7 |
| Champaign SMSA | 6,138 | 5,839 | 229 | 3.9 |
| Decatur SMSA | 4,003 | 3,809 | 295 | 7.7 |
| Peoria SMSA | 11,951 | 11,356 | 624 | 5.5 |
| Rockford SMSA | 9,649 | 9,179 | 582 | 6.3 |
| Springfield SMSA | 4,911 | 4,669 | 362 | 7.8 |
| D-R-I-M SMSA (Illinois section) | 7,220 | 6,866 | 386 | 5.6 |
| St. Louis SMSA (Illinois section) | 19,845 | 18,873 | 1,196 | 6.3 |

* Includes only those veterans 20-34 years of age.

SOURCE: Annual Planning Report Fiscal Year '79 Illinois Bureau of Employment Security.

The national unemployment rates for Vietnam-Era veterans in January, 1977, though somewhat lower than non-veterans in the age groups 25-29 and 30-34, are considerably higher for the 20-24 year old age group. In this age group, the unemployment rate was 16.8% as compared with 10.6% for non-veterans (29, p. 141). Their unemployment rate remained at 16.6% in January of 1978, but decreased to 13.8% in January of 1979 (30, p. 55).

The unemployment rate for Vietnam-Era veterans in Illinois is an average of 2% higher than the rate for all veterans in Illinois and is higher for younger veterans as it is nationally. It is believed the higher unemployment rates for the younger veterans are not abnormal "since unemployment is traditionally higher among younger members of the labor force" (27, p. 19).

"There are several factors which have a significant correlation to the employability of veterans. These factors are education patterns, disability, alcohol and drug addiction, work experience, less-than-honorable discharges and confrontations with the criminal justice system. Each of these factors can be considered a barrier to employment by some employers and by some veterans" (31, p. 5).

"The significant educational factor is the attainment of a high school level education. A study by the Governor's Office of Manpower and Human Development, State of Illinois showed "a greater percentage of the successfully employed Vietnam-Era veterans had high school diplomas or GED certificates before and after the service than did the unemployed and underemployed group" (31, p. 5).

This study also found a greater number of the successfully employed groups had college degrees before the service than the unem-

ployed and underemployed. The group with the highest percentage of college degrees was the non-white successfully employed suggesting educational attainment is a significant factor in the successful employment of minorities (31, p. 5). Unemployment for Vietnam-Era veterans is highest for the youngest veterans and is higher for non-whites than for whites in both the nation and in Illinois (27) (30).

Other findings of the Governor's Office of Manpower study of Illinois veterans were as follows:

1. Alcohol and drug addiction were reported by a larger percentage of the unemployed and underemployed veteran than those successfully employed (31, p. 7).
2. The successfully employed veteran generally started working at an earlier age than the unemployed and underemployed veteran and a higher percentage were employed just prior to entering the service than the unemployed and underemployed group (31, p. 8).
3. A higher percentage of the successfully employed group are using skills learned and practiced in the military than the unemployed and underemployed (31, p. 8).
4. A significantly larger percentage of the unemployed and underemployed group had less-than-honorable discharges than the successfully employed group (31, p. 8).
5. Of those veterans employed, 94.2% found jobs through friends, relatives, newspapers, high schools and colleges, walked in and applied, or the employer found the veteran (31, p. 13).

In Illinois, during fiscal year 1977, nearly one-fourth of all men placed by the Illinois Job Service were veterans. More than half (57%) of all veteran applicants were Vietnam-Era veterans (27, p. 13).

The disabled Vietnam-Era veteran has special problems and these problems are not reflected in the employment data on Vietnam-Era veterans in general. In 1976, 458,111 Vietnam-Era veterans in the nation were receiving disability compensation and 8,954 were receiving pensions. It is not known how many of these veterans were handicapped in terms of employment (29, p. 143). There are no Department of Labor census data on disabled veterans but the department has commissioned several studies on this group. One such study found:

> "Except for the college graduated, severely disabled veterans whether defined by age, race, education or marital status have more difficulty than the slightly disabled veterans in finding a job, and if working are working for lower pay. Among college graduates under 30 years of age, the difference between slightly and severely disabled veterans in employment ... are minimal" (29, p. 143).

> "Disabled veterans who have a disability rating of 10 percent or more for compensation purposes may be provided the training that is required to overcome the handicapping effect of their disability. As of June 30, 1976, 73,327 veterans had entered training and 11,872 were in training. However, this training effort involved only 18.5 percent of the veterans rated for compensation at that time" (29, pp. 143-144).

Many Vietnam-Era veterans have utilized the G.I. Bill to further their education. "A greater percentage of Vietnam-Era veterans have gone to school under the G.I. Bill and a greater proportion are in college than was true of veterans of World War II and of the Korean conflict. Over five million Vietnam-Era veterans have entered training in institutions of higher learning" (29, p. 144).

The improved employment status of these veterans as they grow older is very much related to the improved education and job training acquired by many veterans.

Though there is limited federal and state data on Vietnam-Era veterans, it is clear the greatest need for employment related services, including vocational education, is among young veterans (20-24 years old), severely disabled non-college educated veterans and young minority veterans (27) (29).

Educational Attainment of Veterans
At Time of Separation*: U.S. Totals

| | World War II Veterans | Veterans of Korean Conflict | Vietnam-Era Veterans |
|---|---|---|---|
| Less than high school graduation | 54% | 38% | 20% |
| High school graduate | 46% | 62% | 80% |
| Some college | (10) | (11) | (13) |
| College and more | (10) | ( 8) | ( 8) |

* Data on Vietnam-Era Veterans, VA

Source: Table C, p. 6, Veterans in Illinois, 1977

Vietnam-Era Veterans, 20-34 Years Old
Labor Force Participation and Unemployment Rates: 1977 Annual Averages

| | Population | Labor Force | Participation Rate | Unemployment Rate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| U.S. Total | 6,818,000 | 6,487,000 | 95.1% | 7.3% |
| Illinois | 386,600 | 321,664 | 95.1% | 6.9% |

Source: Veterans in Illinois, 1977, p. 17.

The Handicapped

There has been little attention given to those classified as handicapped or disabled in regards to their employment status until recently. "The Bureau of the Census first sampled for the number of adult handicapped persons in the country during the 1970 census. For a definition of a handicap, the census relied upon the individuals sampled to decide if they were in fact handicapped, subject to certain parameters defined by the surveyers" (32, p. 70).

One of the major problems in attempting to assess or plan for needs of the handicapped in any area including employment and training, is the lack of a uniform definition of what constitutes a handicap.

"The data available on the number of handicapped people vary among agencies counting them" (32, p. 74). This fact often makes the findings of one agency invalid for use by another (33). For example, the Department of Labor's Employment Standards Administration (1977) estimated the number of persons in the United States adult population with a handicap at 7.2 million. This figure, however, probably does not include people with cancer, heart disease, diabetes and many other diseases which are barriers to employment (32, p. 74).

A study by the Urban Institute of Washington D.C. (1975) estimated the severely disabled noninstitutional population 18-65 years old and over in the U.S. to be 8.1 million (33, p. 33).

The Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration (1977) estimated that one in seven noninstitutionalized adult Americans aged 20 through 64 years is afflicted with chronic conditions lasting six or more months that limit the kind or amount of work he or she can perform (35, p. ix). About one in ten persons in the age groups 18-64

is physically or mentally impaired and has some difficulty performing his or her major activity. Approximately 31 million persons of all ages were classified as disabled in 1973 (36, p. 1).

The extent of unemployment among the handicapped is correlated to the extent of work limitation ranges which may be from complete to marginal. A National Survey conducted by the Social Security Administration (1972) found only a seventh of the severely disabled were employed at the time of the survey and only 6% held full-time jobs. The occupationally disabled were somewhat better off with 71% employed and 45% in full-time jobs; however, they were still worse off than the nondisabled population among whom 74% were employed, 61% in full-time jobs (35, p. 2).

This study also found severely disabled males had one-fifth the chance of being employed as the nondisabled and less than one-seventh the probability of being employed full-time. Occupationally disabled males were employed somewhat less than the nondisabled but had twice the frequency of part-time work. Only one in ten severely disabled females engaged in gainful employment and were usually forced into part-time work (35, p. 2).

Chronic and permanent conditions or impairments provide the preconditions to the development of work limitations (34, p. 24). Yet, it is becoming increasingly difficult to detect the ailments that cause work limitations. Variations in the severity of the impairment, the effect of the impairment on work requirement, or the ability of the individual to adjust to impairments or job requirements determine whether the impairment(s) actually result in work disability (34, p. 24). Further the skills, training and/or education an individual has will affect how an

impairment limits work capacity and ability. When physical or mental impairments are coupled with poor education, lack of job skills and sporadic or marginal employment history a handicapped person will suffer substantial employment problems because these are added barriers to employment (34, p. 6).

The Bureau of the Census Survey (1970) showed the handicapped population to be considerably older than the general adult population and to be affected by the same problems traditionally associated with the older population. Among these problems are lower educational attainment, obsolete job skills and stronger geographical attachments (32, p. 74).

In Illinois in June, 1977, the persons receiving aid under Assistance to the Aged, Blind and Disabled totalled 170,424. Disabled persons accounted for 61.3% of the total, compared to 37.8% for the aged and less than one percent for the blind. However, nearly half of all recipients receiving aid under this program were 65 years of age or over (37, p. 49).

Those groups which have historically suffered high unemployment rates -- the young, the old, non-whites, women, the unmarried and persons with less education -- are overrepresented among the disabled as they are among persons without jobs or without stable employment. Thus, the mentally and physically handicapped who are members of these groups are more frequently unable to work regularly or at all than other disabled individuals (35, p. 7). When mental or physical handicaps are further compounded by socioeconomic handicaps the chances of labor market success are further compounded. Those who are both disabled and economically disadvantaged are more likely to have severe employment problems than any other group (34) (35).

Like the groups to which they preponderantly belong, "a far greater proportion of the handicapped population is not considered in the labor force than is the case of the general population. In 1974, handicapped persons not in the labor force but among those 'wanting a job now' constituted 15 percent of the handicapped population. On the other hand, they constituted only 8 percent of the general population not in the labor force listed as 'not wanting a job now.'" (32, p. 71).

In A Study To Develop A Model For Employment Services For The Handicapped, "adequate job training emerged as the overwhelming need for the handicapped to prepare them to obtain and retain meaningful employment. Agency personnel, employers and the handicapped themselves stressed the critical need for job skills desired in the competitive labor market. This is particularly important for the handicapped because their impairments frequently do not permit them the flexibility and physical strength to compete on any other basis" (34, p. 9).

The results of the 1970 Census survey indicate the percent of the adult population by schooling, income, poverty status and labor force status as compared with the handicapped population. In all factors which are important ingredients to successful employment the handicapped lag behind the general adult population. This is especially pronounced as the qualitative increases occur, for example, in level of education. The handicapped population in the survey had less education, less income, and greater poverty than the general population. It also had much greater unemployment if those not in the labor force are counted as unemployed (32, p. 71).

"In 1972, seven of ten nondisabled adults had at least a high school diploma whereas only 44 percent of the disabled and less than a

third of the severely disabled were high school graduates or better. A third of all persons with eight grades or less of education and nearly a fifth of high school dropouts were disabled compared with only 8 percent of those with some college education" (35, p. 8).

There is little doubt the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 which is vocationally oriented and geared to developing skills and work habits needed by the handicapped to obtain jobs in the competitive market has helped many handicapped persons overcome barriers to employment.

The Education of All Handicapped Children Act, Public Law 94-142, and the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 and 1976 have further addressed the needs of the handicapped for vocational skills and education which will improve their labor market experiences.

However, the implications of disability for the individual and for society cannot be overlooked. "Chronic or permanent conditions that impede the performance of social roles cause psychological as well as physical suffering. The individual who is unable to engage in homemaking activities or to participate in the usual activities of daily living is alienated from society. Persons who are unable to work are deprived of their role in the economy and may suffer loss of self-esteem and encounter the disapproval that attaches to unemployment in modern economic settings" (36, p. 1).

"The consequences of work disabilities are also serious for society. Only two-fifths of the disabled are employed during a typical year compared with three-fourths of the nondisabled" (35, p. ix). "Applications for benefits from public disability programs are increasing at a faster rate than the population covered by such programs. Program expenditures increased by 54 percent between 1967 and 1973. And if the

expansion continues, the expenditures will reach $250 billion in 1990" (36, p. 135). The economy suffers because secondary barriers to the employment of the handicapped are not being removed" (35, p. ix).

A study conducted by the Illinois Division of Vocational Rehabilitation in 1974 to estimate the number of disabled persons in Illinois found:

1. About one out of seven noninstitutionalized adults in Illinois are disabled.
2. About one out of every 20 noninstitutionalized adults in Illinois are severely disabled.
3. The prevalence of disability is much higher among older, non-white, female and rural populations.
4. The prevalence of persons severely disabled is significantly higher among females.
5. It is estimated that in Illinois 37,955 adults are mentally retarded; 577,573 are disabled; and 3[illegible]6,470 adults are severely physically disabled.
6. Region 2A (Cook County) accounts for over 49 percent of the state's estimated disabled persons.
7. In fiscal year 1974 DVR served about 6 percent of the estimated disabled adult population in Illinois" (38, p. 3).

It is readily seen many of the findings for Illinois parallel those for the nation. More important is the fact that the needs of the handicapped in Illinois will not differ significantly from those of handicapped individuals in any locality. Therefore, Illinois must move to better address the needs of the handicapped for employment and training opportunities.

Youth, Young Adults

The Illinois Bureau of Employment Security in its Annual Planning Guide for fiscal year 1979 identified youth as "a major labor force component group requiring continuous employment related services: (39, p. 52). According to the report, these individuals, in general, are entering the labor force for the first time and due to their age and lack of previous work experience it is very difficult for them to find suitable employment (39, p. 52). Youth and young adults in Illinois as in the nation, have had high unemployment rates since the recession of the early 1970's. "In Illinois in 1970 youth unemployment totaled 33,300 with a jobless rate of 8.9 percent. By 1976 that number had more than doubled. Little improvement is anticipated in 1979 when the number of youths seeking work is estimated at 68,400 with an unemployment rate of 12.6%. As in the past, non-white youths will have a much higher jobless rate (26.8%) than white youths" (39, p. 52).

There are many reasons for high youth unemployment, the most significant of which is today's teenagers are part of the postwar baby boom. "A direct consequence of this population explosion was an increase in the number of teenagers during the early 1960's. This pattern continued through the mid 1970's before turning downward. The last of the baby boom population will pass through their teenage years in 1981 with the teenage population declining rapidly thereafter" (40, p. 20). The increased labor force participation of youth due to their large numbers in the population have affected their unemployment rates. However, it cannot be assumed that declining numbers in the early 1980's will cause youth unemployment to dissipate. There are many other factors which contribute to youth unemployment and at best their

declining numbers will only lessen the severity of the problem (1). Also "the postwar birthrate for blacks peaked later than for whites and are declining more slowly than those for whites. The black teenage population will continue its present rapid growth at least through 1990. Thus, the teenage population as such will become increasingly black" (40, p. 24). "Black and other non-white youth are expected to represent 14.6% of the teenage labor force nationally in 1980, increasing to 15.2% in 1985 as compared with 11.1% in 1970" (40, p. 24).

In Illinois non-white youths will have a much higher jobless rate (26.8%) than white youths. Non-white males, aged 16-19 years, in particular, are expected to have the highest unemployment rate (30.4%) in 1979 (39, p. 52).

"The precise causes of high unemployment among non-white teenagers are not easy to identify. Racial discrimination, inadequate skills and education, location in economically depressed areas, and intensified competition as a result of the rapid influx of white teenagers and adult women into the labor market are contributing factors" (41, p. xv).

Race, years of schooling completed, and current school enrollment exert somewhat mixed impacts on labor force participation and unemployment of youth.

"One out of three unemployed 16 to 24 year olds is enrolled in school. Among teenagers the number approaches one out of two. The nature of the youth employment experience differs substantially by school enrollment status. That school dropouts have higher unemployment rates than youths in general is well known. Youth enrolled in school and unable to find work can withdraw from the search and focus on student activities. Out of school youth have no such retreat and must continue to search" (40, p. 128).

For those youth combining work and school their ability to work is generally limited to part-time work which restricts the types of jobs open to them (41, p. 2).

Focusing on the occupational distribution of youth, teenagers are clustered in clerical, service and operatives employment. Young adults 20 to 24 years of age are also grouped in these occupations but also have substantial numbers in professional and technical employment. Nearly half of the young women in both age groups are in clerical occupations, whereas young men are more evenly distributed, with one out of four employed as operatives (39, p. 56).

"Reflecting in part differences in education, whites hold a much larger share of professional and technical employment than young blacks. As young adults, blacks continue to be concentrated in service employment, whereas whites shift from service employment to white-collar occupations. For whatever reasons, it appears that blacks fail as young adults to move into white collar occupations in the same proportions as young whites" (40, p. 56).

Affecting the youth share of employment in the clerical, service and operatives occupations are other groups competing for these same jobs especially at entry level.

Youth face increased competition from women and an emerging source of competition can be found among older workers. Part-time employment sought by many teenagers is seen by older workers as a means of supplementing retirement income and easing the economic pressures created by inflation. Finally, the millions of undocumented aliens in the country are another source of competition for jobs in the employment sectors and at the level where youth have traditionally been employed" (40, p. 64).

The service and clerical occupations are expected to continue to show much growth into the 1980's. However, with so many groups competing for jobs in these sectors it is unlikely their growth will serve to diminish youth unemployment to any degree.

The concentration of young blacks in slow-growth blue collar employment will adversely affect their employment in the near future unless occupational upgrading occurs (40).

"Increasing skill requirements in the urban labor market are making entry more difficult for inexperienced youths with limited training and credentials" (41, p. xv). Education and training are closely related to employment of youth, as for others in the workforce. An inverse relationship exists between the amount of education of young workers and their unemployment; that is, the less education or training, the higher the unemployment rate.

Youths characteristically enter and leave the labor force and change jobs more frequently than mature workers; their unemployment rates are thus invariably higher (41, p. 3) (42, p. 21). However, this process of entering, leaving and re-entering the work force permits young workers to gain important knowledge about the world of work and to begin to form preferences regarding lifetime career goals and aspirations (42, p. 21).

These early intermittent work experiences "(1) teach individuals effective job search techniques; (2) teach effective work habits such as promptness and respect for superiors; (3) provide self-respect and confidence that come from being financially independent or semi-independent; (4) provide the valuable opportunity to make mistakes at a time when mistakes are not as likely to be as costly as they would be when

the worker has dependents counting on him for a continuous source of income" (43, pp. 3-4).

One of the effects of high youth unemployment is the failure of youth to acquire these labor market skills (43, p. 4; 42, p. 7). "Current labor force participation is highest for those who were employed as teenagers. Being out of work but in school is not as closely related to subsequent employability as being out of work and out of school" (40, p. 103). Those youth out of work and out of school are not gaining employability skills and their subsequent employability is adversely affected.

The inability of some youths to find work has serious implications for the aforementioned reasons but also because many youths like women and minorities cease to search for a job because they have little hope of getting one. They join the ranks of discouraged workers and drop out of the labor force. Also, many youth employed part-time but desiring full-time work do not appear in the unemployment statistics (41, p. 2).

Discouraged young workers tend to be concentrated in large urban areas especially in the inner city areas where low to negative employment growth is occurring in key industrial and occupational categories that traditionally have been heavy employers of youth. Minority youth who tend to be concentrated in these areas have had extremely high unemployment rates (39).

The changing attitudes of youth toward labor market participation undoubtedly contributes to the problem of joblessness. Many inner-city youth reject menial, service type jobs previously accepted by youth newly entering the labor market. "The preference today seems to be for 'good jobs' or at least entry level positions which appear to lead

toward higher status and higher income in the future" (42, p. 25). Yet, as a result of disparities between the educational preparation of youth and the hiring standards of employers, large scale unemployment among inner-city youth often exists simultaneously with significant numbers of job vacancies in entry-level white collar jobs in many cities (42, p. 25).

Racial discrimination continues to be one of the barriers to greater labor market success for black youth. However, widespread inadequacies in the quality of public school education (especially in inner-city areas) do little to prepare youth even for the available entry level jobs which require only modest educational attainment (42, pp. 21, 23).

The inadequacies in quality of education in inner city areas and the failure of many youth to participate fully in that education compounds the unemployment problem because failure to engage in the education available often prevents subsequent education and training opportunities.

In conclusion, "there appears to be little question that, on the average, those having difficult labor market experiences as youths are the same individuals who will have difficulties later. While many unemployed youths successfully move into well-paying, permanent positions many do not do so and as a result face a real disadvantage as adult workers. Youth who are unemployed, underemployed, or out of the labor force and especially if they are also out of school, define an important target population that can be expected to find labor market assimilation difficult."

The Chances of Being Unemployed for Various Groups of Youth in 1976

| If you were | Your chances of being unemployed were about |
|---|---|
| AGE | |
| 16 - 24 | 1 in 7 |
| 16 - 19 | 1 in 5 |
| 20 - 24 | 1 in 8 |
| AGE 16 to 24, Not in School, and a | |
| nonwhite college graduage | 1 in 14 |
| college graduate | 1 in 14 |
| high school graduate (no college) | 1 in 8 |
| non-white high school graduate (no college) | 1 in 4 |
| school dropout | 1 in 4 |
| non-white school dropout | 1 in 3 |
| AGE 16 to 13, and Family Income of | |
| more than the Labor Department's lower living standard budget (LLSB) | 1 in 8 |
| less than the LLSB but more than poverty standard | 1 in 5 |
| more than LLSB and non-white | 1 in 5 |
| less than poverty standard | 1 in 3 |
| less than poverty standard and non-white | 1 in 2 |
| AGE 16 to 19, and Living in a | |
| suburban area | 1 in 6 |
| central city | 1 in 4 |
| poverty area of central city | 1 in 3 |
| central city and non-white | 2 in 5 |
| poverty area of central city and non-white | 2 in 5 |

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings (January, 1977); Students, Graduates, and Dropouts in the Labor Market, October, 1976, Special Labor Force Report 200 (1977); and unpublished data. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Survey of Income and Education," data file.

The Elderly

"It may be ironic if not paradoxical that the emergence of a society that enables increasing proportions of its members to live more than 60 years is the same society in which a smaller proportion of those living to be 'old' are defined as wanted or needed participants in the productive population -- the labor force" (44, p. 1).

The older worker in the United States and in Illinois suffers many problems and often grave injustices in the employment arena. "The employment of persons above 55 years of age of both sexes continues to diminish and for the elderly over 65 and above the job erosion is worse" (45, p. 10).

Many older workers engage in voluntary retirement and many others are involuntarily retired, many are economically prepared for retirement and many are not. Many who have retired find their economic situation does not permit their remaining in total retirement and seek to re-enter the work force. Many others without pension benefits and/or savings must remain in the labor force. Many in this group are those with few skills and little education to take into their competition for jobs. They are disadvantaged workers, and "they comprise 16 percent of the total disadvantaged active job applicants registered with the Illinois Job Service as of March 31, 1978" (46, p. 48). In June, 1977, aged persons also were 37.8 percent of those receiving assistance under the Assistance to the Aged, Blind, and Disabled in Illinois. Nearly half of these recipients were 65 years of age or over (46, p. 48).

"The economic burden of an aging society is a relatively recent phenomena. Around the turn of the century, when the average life

expectancy at birth was much lower than it is today (49 years versus over 70), fewer individuals lived to spend any appreciable length of time in retirement. More important those who did manage to reach 'old age' (about 4 percent of the population) tended to remain in the labor force longer in the then predominately rural society. When working was no longer feasible, they become the responsibility of their families, much like younger dependents" (47, p. 3). Today, increased urbanization, industrialization and geographic mobility and the increases in life expectancy resulting from medical advances have fostered significant changes in the lifestyle and economic situation of the elderly. Most live in their own households away from members of their family (47, p. 3).

In Illinois, the number of elderly living on their own has been increasing and is expected to continue so that by the year 2000, twice as many households will be headed by the elderly than was the case in 1970 (48, p. 100).

The number of elderly heading households is important because this has affected their need for employment. Older persons whether unemployed or retired are faced with rising cost of all the basic necessities of life and often are unable to earn an adequate income through full-time or part-time work to keep up with changing economic conditions. (49).

The elderly population in Illinois was 10.3 percent (1.1 million persons) of the total population in 1975 and is expected to grow to 11.5 percent (1.4 million persons) by the year 2000 (5, p. 14), while increased numbers of elderly are projected, "one of the important trends in labor force participation in Illinois is that fewer elderly persons will seek or maintain employment despite increases in the mandatory retirement age" (48, p. 94).

It is unlikely the decrease in labor force participation by the elderly either current (21%) or projected 17% for the year 2000, is totally voluntary.

It is likely that for many of the elderly who want to work and need to work "ageism" in employment is and will continue to be a very serious problem" (50, p. 23).

Age discrimination is important because it is one of the major causes of unemployment among older labor force participants. "Age discrimination in employment is also important because aging is a phenomena that affects both sexes, all races, creeds, and colors, and members of all religious groups" (51, p. 8). The reasons that are used to support mandatory retirement and for not employing older workers are related to age discrimination. These beliefs about older workers though more myth than fact are frequently heard in our society, "a society that values youth so highly that after a certain point age is considered a handicap to employment" (51, p. 7). Some of the reasons given for not employing older workers are as follows:

1. Older persons as a group may be less well-suited for some jobs than younger workers because of declining physical and mental capacities.
2. Generally, older persons do not learn new skills as easily as younger workers.
3. Older workers typically have less education than younger workers.
4. It is sometimes more costly for employers to have an older work force in terms of maintaining various pensions, health and life insurance plans.

5. By employing fewer older workers and forcing retirement at an earlier age there are more opportunities for younger workers.
6. Older workers are not as efficient as younger employees; hence, the retention or hiring of older employees increases the operating cost of the organization.
7. The older worker has a limited number of productive years after learning a job. (51) (52).

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (1968) was enacted to promote the employment of persons who are at least 40 years of age and under 65 based on their ability rather than age. It also seeks to prohibit discrimination in employment because of age in matters such as hiring, job retention, compensation and other terms, conditions or privileges of employment (52, p. 15).

Since the passage of this law, the Department of Labor has completed several thousand age discrimination investigations. The results of these investigations have found white collar workers in middle and upper management are the most common victims. The next group most affected are unskilled laborers. The least affected group are those older employees with valuable mechanical skills and union protection (51, p. 9).

The desire of many firms employing white collar workers to maintain a youthful image may partially explain the frequency of age discrimination among the older white collar workers (50). The importance of education and skills are important factors for older workers in maintaining employment as they are for all labor force participants.

Unfortunately, "the illiteracy rate for those 65 and over is far above that for any other group. As of 1973, 43% of persons 55 or over had no more than 8 years of formal education. The comparable figure for all persons over 25 years was 24%" (53, p. 15). Opening up additional educational opportunities for older persons would help provide skills needed for employment, employment in second careers, or for those desiring to participate in volunteer work to qualify for such work if new skills are needed (53). "In the whole area of adult education, not more than 3 percent of the persons who are participating are 65 and over" (53, p. 22). The Administration on Aging is endeavoring to make it possible for older persons to have the opportunity of participating in educational programs. Emphases in this effort are on:

> "Ensuring opportunities for all older persons to acquire skills and information needed for decision making and for coping with daily and special tasks in order for them to maintain their independence and their continuing participation in family and community affairs. Helping to reach the unreached, to locate older persons in need of information, education and related services and to help them obtain needed information and services giving special attention to minority cultural groups and/or socially isolated older persons" (53, p. 15).

These efforts are in response to the declining labor force participation of older workers and the increased unemployment and underemployment of this group.

"Labor force participation has fallen off sharply for middle-aged and older workers -- persons in their forties, fifties and above. In 1966, the labor force participation rate nationally for white males aged 45 to 54 was 96%. A decade later their rate dropped to 75 percent. Among non-white males, the decline has been more pronounced from 91% in 1966 to 66% ten years later" (50, p. 19). While the number of males 45-64 participating in the labor force has undergone a steady decline,

the participation rate of females of the same age group has increased markedly (50) (54). "Although there are a number of motives which might explain the increased labor force activity of these women, the major cause may be the need to augment or protect the family standard of living after a spouse has retired (voluntarily or involuntarily) or become unemployed" (50, p. 15).

There is a need for many older persons to work. "The proportion of older persons below the poverty line is continuing to rise, particularly among those 65 or over; although the overall percent of our nation's citizens classified as in poverty has fallen" (45, p. 11).

"In 1975, approximately 3.3 million elderly lived in poverty, many impoverished for the first time because of the dramatic one-half to two-thirds reduction in income caused by retirement" (53, p. 77). In addition to reduced income "rising prices have shaken the economic confidence of those retiring several years ago on what was then considered a comfortable retirement income" (50, p. 19).

In 1972, a report by the Social Security Administration noted that social security, private pensions and savings combined did not match the preretirement income of the average worker (52, p. 25).

Results of the NCOA/Lewis Harris survey of public attitudes toward aging document the older populations desire and economic need to work. "Four million survey respondents over 65 who were unemployed or retired wanted to work; 43 percent of those over 65 with incomes below $3,000 who were not working desired jobs. Fifty percent of black respondents over 65 who were unemployed wanted to work. Older black respondents were most likely to be poor and to need work; 57 percent had incomes below $3,000 a year compared to only 23 percent

of older white respondents. It was also found, there was a larger proportion of forced retirements among those with low incomes and with less than high school educations" (53, p. 77).

The economic problems of unemployed adults whether their unemployment results from voluntary or involuntary reasons are compounded when "older workers" are being defined at younger and younger ages. Today, workers aged 40-65 and over may encounter difficulties in finding or maintaining employment, and when unemployed remain so longer than other groups (54, p. 7).

Older workers facing particularly serious problems of unemployment and underemployment often become discouraged and drop out of the labor market. A disproportionate number of discouraged workers are older workers (49) (53).

"The importance of a job cannot be overstated. Through work most persons derive their income and sense of well-being. For many, work is intrinsically satisying as well as an economic necessity. Thus, the loss of or inability to obtain a job creates many individual problems particularly for older workers whose attachment to the labor market has spanned several decades" (45, p. 9).

"Twenty-five percent of all suicides in this country are people 65 years of age and older. It is possible there is a correlation between this rate and the traumatic experiences they have to go through" (53, p. 30). Forced retirement, unemployment, poverty, lack of preretirement planning, economic insecurity, lower educational attainment are all problems for the older population.

Perhaps, at least for some of these older persons, increasing educational opportunities may provide them new skills with which to

compete. Certainly such opportunity will solve but one of the problems but one less problem will represent one less barrier to employment.

Minorities

"For most people work is an indispensible part of life which integrates them into society and simultaneously meets their social and economic needs and wants" (55, p. 1). Some groups find such integration into the society through work much more difficult than others. Minorities are one such group.

"The United States was developed through the work of oppressed religious and ethnic minorities who were reared under the ideology of a work ethic emphasizing individual initiative, industriousness, thrift and deferred gratification. This drive to succeed is imbedded in our culture, which extolls the virtues of labor for expressive rewards. From childhood we are socialized into the world of work, taught it is natural and desirable to work and to take pride in doing our job well" (55, p. 2-3).

Many people do not believe minority groups share this value system. Myths and stereotypes persist depicting them in negative terms, and such negative impressions have perpetuated a system of discrimination that systematically excludes many of them from the prerequisites of the affluent society (55, p. 3).

"The unemployment problems of minority groups in the United States have been well documented in recent years and this documentation has shown minorities, particularly blacks, do not fare as well in the labor market or in employment as whites" (56, p. 77).

Blacks and Hispanics are the two largest groups of minorities in the United States and in Illinois; therefore, it will be these groups

which receive attention here. Much of the information on these minority groups reflects national trends. However, "the structure of the labor force in Illinois closely resembles the U.S. labor force with minor exceptions" (57, p. 7). Where Illinois specific information could be found relating to the employment problems of minorities, it has been included.

Illinois has a growing minority population partially due to the out migration of whites, and the higher birth rate of minorities. It is projected that Black and Hispanic populations will continue to grow more rapidly than the overall population through the year 2000 (58, p. 14). Blacks comprised 12% of the U.S. working age population in 1977 but they accounted for 22% of the nation's unemployment during that year, with an average jobless rate of 13.1% (59, p. 20, 26). Those of Hispanic origin, in contrast, experienced marked improvement in their job situation in 1977. Joblessness among this group was 10% in 1977 (59, p. 20, 28). The unemployment rate for both groups represent higher-than-average unemployment.

The latest statistics on Illinois jobless rates for non-whites showed their unemployment rate was 15.4% compared to 5.3% for whites. The unemployment rate for non-white youth in Illinois in 1978 was 40.6% compared with 16.3% for all youth, and their unemployment rate has continued to stay at very high rates (56, p. 47).

"The unemployment rate in Illinois is projected to decline. However, groups with the highest unemployment rates, including minorities, are expected to continue to have higher-than-average unemployment and unemployment is expected to remain disproportionately high among black youth" (58, p. 94).

In 1977, over 40% of all people seeking jobs through Illinois Job Service offices were minority workers and two-thirds of those classified as economically disadvantaged applicants were minority individuals (60, p. 47-48).

The recent state of the economy has been one of the most important single determinants of the current economic status of blacks, as occupational gains have generally been made by blacks during periods of high labor demand and low employment (55, p. 84). When the economy takes downturns as it has in the 1970's, the unemployment rates of minorities increase, often disproportionately to those of whites, and labor force participation drops. In recovery periods, minorities do not re-enter employment as rapidly as whites and continue to experience higher unemployment rates for longer periods of time. (61) (55) "Job loss is an integral part of the employment patterns of many non-white workers regardless of the overall conditions of the economy. This is due in part to their concentration in blue collar and other occupations where cyclical changes in employment are felt more sharply" (61, p. 12).

Securing jobs is just the first hurdle for blacks and other minorities. The ability to hold a job and develop tenure is equally critical. Cyclical hiring and layoffs, usually based on seniority, make minorities more susceptible to unemployment in many occupational areas where they are employed in large numbers (61, p. 60).

Blacks and Hispanics tend to be over-represented in occupations characterized by higher-than-average jobless rates and under-represented in the higher skilled occupations.

In 1976 approximately 37.6% of employed blacks and 46.1% of hispanic workers were in blue collar occupations. They held disproportionately large shares of the lower-paid operative, laborer and service positions (62, p. 11). Minorities are conspiciously absent among officials and managers, the jobs which pay well and offer advancement opportunities (62, p. 11). In all the white collar occupations whether official/manager, professional, technician, sales workers, or office clerical workers as well as in the well paid craft category blacks and hispanics are represented at rates below their incidence in the civilian labor force (62, p. 11) (58, p. 293). "In 1975, Blacks constituted only 3.0 percent of private industry's reported managers and professionals, but 15, 20, and 23 percent respectively of its operatives, laborers and service workers. Hispanics held almost 10 percent the laborer jobs, 6.7 percent of the service jobs and 5.6 percent of the operatives jobs. Only 1.6 percent of all managers and professionals were Hispanic" (62, p. 11).

Geographic imbalance in economic growth is having a significant effect on minority unemployment today. The majority of minorities today live in large urban areas which are in economic decline. Whites have been leaving these areas moving to the suburbs and semi-rural areas outside central cities (64, p. 12). In Illinois, for example, Chicago has lost 200,000 jobs to the surrounding suburbs within the last ten years while population has declined by only 5 percent (60, p. 17). Thus, while jobs are increasing in number outside the central city area, employment opportunities are declining in inner-city areas leaving pockets of unemployment.

Jobs that are available to many unemployed minorities are in the secondary labor market. This is usually the case if they are living in poverty neighborhoods or inner city areas. Secondary jobs are common in food handling and hotel service industries, lower-grade hospital services. building maintenance services and some branches of manufacturing and retail trade. These jobs are characterized by low pay, instability, lack of opportunity for advancement, and unpleasant working condition" (65, pp. 28-29).

"Some minorities, like other workers, prefer to remain unemployed rather than accept what they consider undesirable jobs. Many others who take these jobs soon quit" (66, p. 32). As a result, some employers stereotype minority workers as lacking work discipline, showing little interest in a job, and having less than satisfactory work habits (65, p. 27).

Studies have shown, (Goodwin 1972, Kaplan, 1971) the middle-class emphasis on the attainment of white-collar professions and occupations is shared by minority individuals. Kaplan's study found minorities studied exhibited as strong a commitment to work as that reported among employed blue- and white-collar workers (55, p. 6).

The disaffection shown for some jobs by minorities is just that, disaffection for the job not for the American work ethic (65, p. 27). This is understandable since many minorities are forced into jobs that no one else wants. "Many of the jobs available to the minority groups provide services vital for the maintenance of the affluent lifestyle of the middle class ... For these services they are paid less, more likely to be laid off, receive fewer fringe benefits, are denied access to upward mobility and are often forced to view work as instrumental (purely economic) terms" (55, p. 5).

Educational attainment is the determining factor in minorities' mobility in the labor market. Those with skill training beyond the secondary level of schooling and those with college degrees have been able to achieve employment opportunities in higher skilled, higher paying occupations.

"Blacks, and other minorities, for example, have closed the educational gap measured in median years of education between themselves and whites. In fact, today the difference is negligible 12.6 years completed for whites and 12.3 completed for blacks and others" (59, p. 203). However, median years of schooling does not necessarily give a realistic picture of the educational attainment. In some age groups, the educational deficiencies may cause severe employment problems.

In 1974, for example, 72 percent of blacks and other minorities 20-24 years of age had completed high school as compared to 85 percent of whites. Adults 25 to 34 years of age who had completed college was 8 percent for blacks but 21 percent for whites (67, p. 96).

"In 1975, the average education for American whites aged 20 years and over was 12.7 years. For blacks in the same age group it was 11.9 years. The difference of only one year can mean the difference between a job-getting diploma and/or the extra hurdle of trying to find a job without a diploma" (68, p. 32).

"Census data is also misleading if one is attempting to measure the academic achievement of blacks vis a vis whites because the possession of a high school diploma is not necessarily synonymous with the ability to read, write and perform simple mathematical calculations. The most comprehensive study of black/white differentials in academic achievement was the Coleman report. It reported that blacks on the average, at

grade 12 lag behind whites 3 to 5 years. More recent studies indicate that this gap has not been narrowed significantly" (69, p. 39).

"Given changed demand and supply in the labor market, educational achievements are among the credentials used for selecting among job applicants" (55, p. 14). Workers with higher levels of educational attainment are able to get better jobs in terms of income and status than workers who possess less schooling, or whose schooling has been so low in quality it failed to provide them with rudimentary skills (70, 0. 14). Therefore, minorities who also suffer educational deficiencies are likely to experience greater unemployment. Adult vocational education can help to eliminate some of the educational deficiencies that impede labor market success of minority workers.

The Underemployed

The problem of unemployment as an employment problem receives the greatest attention in the mass media. Certainly the unemployed in our society suffer much hardship as members of the labor force. However, there is another group, or actually several groups, whose experience in the labor market, though successful in the fact they have obtained jobs, does little to improve their quality of life.

Recent government recognition of these groups has lead to the use of terms such as the underemployed, the subemployed, and the underutilized workers. Industrial psychiatrists refer to them as "misfits in industry."

Regardless of the term used, reference is to the fact the majority of these people are employed in occupations below their highest skill and are functioning below their present capacity or potential because they lack education or training or because they are overeducated for the jobs they hold (71, p. 123).

There are millions of underemployed workers in this country. The college graduate who can only find work in jobs which require much less education. Those who must work in jobs which do not provide what we have come to consider a decent standard of work. "Included in this category is the one-tenth of the nation's work force which is paid less for full-time work than the amount required to bring a family of four to the poverty threshold as defined by the federal government" (72, p. 1). This group is often referred to as "the working poor."

Part-time workers who would like full-time work may also be considered underemployed. "In the United States in 1977 there were 3.5 million involuntary part-time workers." This group consisted of those on short workweeks for economic reasons meaning they accepted part-time work after an unsuccessful search for full-time work, or they experienced reduced hours of work because of unfavorable economic conditions (73, p. 16).

In Illinois approximately 186,800 individuals (21.3 percent of all part-time workers) were employed part-time for economic reasons in 1979. This figure includes "persons whose usual status is full-time but who are working part-time for reasons such as insufficient product demand, temporary plant closings and material shortages. Also included are those who are unable to obtain full-time employment due to lack of education or adequate job training" (74, p. 51).

The underemployed, especially those with few skills and because underemployment can be measured in degrees, usually are employed in substandard jobs. These jobs combine low wages, little opportunity for learning new skills, monotony, little challenge, no upward mobility, low-prestige and are dead-end work (72, pp. 1,4).

Low-level jobs are also matters of degree rather than classification. All jobs have some drawbacks which could be improved and most have some redeeming factor. The most serious underemployment must then be viewed as that taking place at the bottom of the occupational scale and involving most of the characteristics described above. Thus, dull but relatively prestigious jobs, as paraprofessionals in some social agencies, are not at issue (73).

At the bottom of the occupational scale, the underemployed are those with little formal education and few skills. Those groups experiencing above-average unemployment are disproportionately represented here, women, minorities, older workers, youth.

Underemployment, like unemployment is affected by the state of the economy. Its fullest impact is felt when there are economic downturns and few jobs are available. The competition for any job available becomes keener. "Persons facing dismal labor market conditions are more willing to accept whatever employment and wages are available. The work may not fully utilize either their time or talents, but they accept the work as a temporary measure while waiting for better employment opportunities to emerge" (75, p. 51).

The problem arises because in our labor market credentials are valued to such a high degree. Those with higher educational and skill levels are favored in the labor market regardless of the actual skills needed to perform a job. Thus, those with the higher work credentials in an economic downturn will take lower skilled jobs. This sets up a process of job displacement that trickles down the occupational scale reaching its full force at the bottom of the occupational ladder where the least educated workers are pushed into unemployment (76, p. 1).

Education has played a prominant role in the underemployment problems in this country. "One of the primary functions of formal education is the preparation of the young for the world of work. During the 20th century, this function became more dominant. Indeed, in many schools serving the lower classes preparation for the world of work became the sole function of education. In carrying out this function, schools also became society's sorters, selectors, and certifiers. They bestowed society's approval on some young people opening opportunities for further education which almost inevitably led to good jobs and high class standing. Other students were less fortunate. They were tracked into vocational schools to learn the traits and attitudes appropriate for their working class station in life. Thus, in the allocating of educational opportunities, the schools ascribed social class standing and indirectly the future life styles and life chances of the young" (76, p. 1).

"Today, the schools are used for the creation of social equality by providing greater equality of occupational opportunity for all classes through increasing access to education" (76, p. 2). However, this too has created problems in more recent years. With the ever increasing number of people with higher educational attainment and job skills, "society's reflex action has been to lay ever-heavier stress on the value of educational credentials. Employers have responded to increased numbers of qualified workers by needlessly raising the credential requirements for jobs without upgrading the demands, challenges or rewards of these jobs" (76, p. 5).

Further, education raised the aspirations of those engaged in it. There was /is the promise of good jobs and the good life. The promise

was fulfilled until recent years, because the economy was expanding and the labor market was able to absorb the supply of educated persons." "The socioeconomic trend runs on eternally. It is now clear the ever-expanding supply of educated workers is running up against a ceiling of job demand" (76, p. 2). The consequences of increases in educational attainment have resulted with the economic order being an unstable one, in a lack of good jobs available for everyone who wants one, is qualified for one, or thinks he deserves one (76, p. 3).

At the same time it appears education has served one group too well, it also appears another group has not been served well enough, those underemployed because they are undereducated.

The results for both groups of underemployed are basically the same. They come to feel trapped in bad jobs, sensing that by rights they deserve better. For the undereducated they also sense by circumstances they will probably never achieve more. Both groups are in situations in which many adverse influences are exerted on their psychological, social, and economic well being and in which they experience dissatisfaction with life and work (76, p. 3).

There is a relationship between underemployment and unemployment and discouragement in the labor market. The prospect of working hard in a job that offers little in rewards and promises to lead nowhere discourages many, especially the unskilled, from seeking work (71).

There are perhaps some positive aspects of the jobs that are identified with underemployment. They do provide transitory and temporary employment for youth and voluntary part-time workers, and a bad job for many is certainly better than no job.

The low level jobs associated with underemployment of those with little education are not disappearing. "In fact they are increasing in some areas. They endure because they involve the most basic and essential activities in our economy -- the provision of food, clothing, shelter, care of the sick and performance of a wide variety of production and housekeeping fuctions" (72, p. 5).

Underemployment is a complex employment problem for which there is no single solution though upgrading of low-level jobs is a popular suggested remedy. Certainly, society is not willing to give up credentialism, and the schools are not willing to, nor should they, revert to being society's sorters and selectors though they remain its certifiers.

If education can serve a useful function in this area, it may be not only to educate for jobs, but to educate people to the nature of the work force and the workplace in terms of today's realities and tomorrow's possibilities. Not to do so is to miseducate and create mis-fits in the work force (77).

While job creation and job upgrading are critical elements in the labor market policies needed in response to the underemployment dilemma, there is also a need for basic skill development and job readiness training.

Investment in education and training through participation in adult vocational education provides participants with skills not only to compete for the jobs available, but also to gain access to subsequent training opportunities to upgrade skills.

There will always be competition in the labor market. Our labor market is competitive, and workers at all levels must continue education and training if they are to be able to compete.

Delivery Systems for Vocational Education to the Unemployed and Underemployed

There are many agencies and programs, both private and public, which deliver adult vocational education to the unemployed and underemployed in Illinois. Many of these agencies and programs are part of the "manpower services delivery system" which may be defined as "those activities and funds designed to help the unemployed find work or to assist those with limited work skills to obtain and retain jobs" (78, p. 14).

The scope of the manpower services delivery system can be seen from this description of involvement which appears in the 1976 Employment and Training Report to the Governor: "Within Illinois in 1976, fourteen state agencies, twenty county and city governments, over one hundred community colleges, vocational centers and adult education centers, a dozen labor unions, a wide range of not-for-profit social service agencies are directly involved in various manpower programs. When adding to this the operating components of these programs, the Governor's Office of Manpower and Human Development estimated that more than 500 institutions and over 6,000 noninstitutional personnel are engaged in the administrative and service aspects of Illinois employment and training programs" (78, p. 14).

The number of agencies and programs involved in the delivery of adult vocational education makes it impossible to discuss all of them here. Therefore, the discussion here will be limited to broad based programs many of which contract with smaller agencies and programs for the delivery of vocational education services to the unemployed and underemployed. Also, it is generally the larger broad-based programs

which provide programs to meet the needs of the special groups of unemployed and underemployed identified in earlier sections of this report.

The primary deliverers of adult vocational education for the unemployed and underemployed are the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act programs operated by local prime sponsors and the Balance of State prime sponsor in Illinois.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act is the most current of series of evolutionary federal manpower acts, which included the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 and the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. CETA provides for wide scale training and retraining for the unemployed and underemployed.

The purposes of CETA are threefold and may be summarized as follows:

First, the Act provides training and employment opportunities to increase the earned income of economically disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed adults.

Secondly, the Act provides for the establishment of a flexible coordinated system of federal, state and local programs for job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed persons and assures that these services lead to maximum opportunities and enhanced self-sufficiency for participants (79, p. 2).

Third, the Act provides for the coordination of programs under CETA with other employment and training related programs, social services programs, economic development and community development programs. It encourages prime sponsors to use services and facilities

available from federal, state and local agencies, including state employment security agencies, state vocational education and rehabilitation agencies, skills centers, local educational agencies, postsecondary training and educational institutions and community action agencies. Prime sponsors may also use the services and facilities of the private sector: businesses, employment agencies, educational and vocational institutions, and labor organizations (79, p. 2).

"Each legally eligible jurisdiction of state or local government must submit an application to the Department of Labor. This application is a comprehensive plan which specifies the manner in which CETA services are to be provided to selected target categories of individuals. The application, if approved by the Department of Labor, becomes a legally binding agreement for the local or state prime sponsor's delivery of training and employment services to eligible populations" (80, p. 138).

"Employment and training services of prime sponsors involves bringing individuals into a CETA program, assessing their needs and developing and implementing a plan to achieve their employment goals. The services provided include assessment, counseling, job development and follow-up, which are necessary for successful training programs. Assessment determines whether and what employment and training programs can benefit a participant. It addresses such issues as motivation, personal problems and educational and language deficiencies, all of which may hinder a person's ability to successfully complete training and obtain employment. Counseling helps to solve individual problems and includes job coaching, testing, and vocational or career guidance" (79, p. 3).

To insure services are provided to those most in need of services at the local level, most prime sponsors use an intake preference index. This index weights positively the eligibility for services of certain groups of unemployed by social characteristics, economic characteristics, or as groups for special consideration, i.e., disabled veterans, older workers (80, p. 29).

Vocational education training may be provided under Title II, IV, and VII of CETA by local and state prime sponsors.

Title II authorizes the work and training programs previously contained in Title I: institutional, on-the-job training, work experience, job search assistance and supportive services. Upgrading and retraining activities and transitional employment opportunities are funded until Title II.

Provisions for supplemental vocational education services to be provided with the six percent set-aside funds are also included in Title II. These funds are used to provide vocational education and services to CETA participants. Eighty-five percent of these funds are available to local prime sponsors for participants in their programs. These funds are administered by the State Vocational Education Board. The remaining fifteen percent may be used for coordination, linkages, technical assistance and other services as identified in the Act.

Title IV provides funding for youth programs. It funds Jobs Corps residential programs, youth programs added by the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 and the Summer Youth Employment Program.

The Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects, Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects and Youth Employment and

Training Programs which are part of the YEDPA may be operated by local or state prime sponsors. Prime sponsors may contract with state and local government agencies, local education agencies, community-based organizations and/or private-for-profit employers for the operation of the programs funded under YEDPA in accordance with the rules pertaining to the various programs. Nineteen of the Illinois prime sponsors operated or planned to operate youth employment and training projects in 1978 and eighteen operated or planned to operated youth community conservation improvement projects.

The Summer Youth Employment Program is the most widely known of the Title IV programs. It provides eligible youth with useful work and sufficient basic education and institutional on-the-job training to assist them to develop occupational potential and to obtain employment not subsidized under the Act. These programs are designed to provide structured and well supervised work opportunities to explore vocational interest; job rotations to expose youth to different work settings; vocational counseling and occupational information. The programs provide income to participants who without it would be unable to attend school, meet special employability needs and provide services to induce and aid dropouts to return to school (82).

The programs under Title IV serve youth 16-21 years of age with each having its age requirements specified in the rules and regulations of the Act. These programs are very important, easing the severity of youth unemployment.

Title VII of CETA is a demonstration title authorizing a variety of approaches to increase the involvement of the business community in employment and training activities of the Act.

"To receive financial assistance under Title VII, each prime sponsor must establish a Private Industry Council. Together, the Private Industry Council and CETA prime sponsor design and develop the Title VII program" (39) (83).

It is the function of the Private Industry Council to:

1. Analyze private sector job opportunities and training possibilities, such as apprenticeship;
2. Refine employment and training programming so that it becomes increasingly responsive to private sector labor needs;
3. Develop specific private sector employment and training projects;
4. Develop standards for the types of occupations to be selected for the expenditure of training funds; and
5. Develop standards and specifications for training in particular occupations (83).

CETA has the flexibility to provide vocational education opportunities, within its eligibility criteria, to diverse populations of unemployed and underemployed and to provide diversity in its service programs to meet a variety of needs at various levels.

The vocational education services offered by CETA may include classroom training, on-the-job training, work experience, public service employment, supportive services, job development and placement services and follow-up. All CETA programs and the programs to be discussed later in this section include some combination of these services; therefore, a brief description of each of the services is important in understanding the delivery systems of agencies providing vocational education.

"Classroom training is any training conducted in an institutional setting designed to provide individuals with the skills and information required to perform a specific job or group of jobs" (79, p. 6).

"Classroom training may be conducted in a conventional vocational-technical school, in a community college, or in a skills center designed specifically for training disadvantaged workers. It may be a multi-occupational type facility or a classroom oriented toward a single occupation. It may provide special supportive services to trainees or refer them individually to a regular course for nondisadvantaged students. It differs from other types of training programs in that the trainee is away from the job site during the classroom training period" (84, p. 5).

On-the-job training is self explanatory. Its basic philosophy is that, for many occupations, a trainee learns best by doing the work in an actual work setting, using the employer's procedures and equipment and according to the employer's requirements. It works well in the case of semi-skilled occupations in which workers are hired at an unskilled level and move upward through a progression of jobs each involving small increments of skills (85, p. 1).

It is also well suited for disadvantaged persons who may be disenchanted with classroom types of training and because a client can start work immediately, the incentive of a salary for actual work serves as a motivating factor (85, p. 1).

OJT contracts are designed to motivate employers to hire individuals they might otherwise not consider by providing reimbursements to cover the cost of hiring training and retraining activities (85, p. 1).

Work experience is "a short-term and/or part-time work assignment with a public or nonprofit private employing agency, designed to enhance the employability of individuals who have either never worked or who recently have not been working in the competitive labor population for an extended period of time ... In addition, work experience may include a short-term work assignment while an appropriate classroom training, on-the-job training, or public service employment opportunity funded under the Act is being developed (86).

Work experience can provide a good employability development strategy particularly when coupled with other program elements such as classroom occupational training, job search skills training, remedial education performance assessment, counseling and/or various supportive services (86, p. 3).

"Public service employment can be defined as expenditure of public funds to employ, on the payroll of public agencies those who would otherwise remain unemployed" (87, p. 1).

These programs are funded under Title II and Title VI of CETA. The programs can have many objectives, which may include the simple provisions or expansion or public services, a stimulus to the economy, a mechanism to retain a specific labor pool intact until "better times" develop, or they may serve as a tool to develop the employability of an individual (87, p. 5).

Only the last of these purposes has direct relevance to adult vocational education, although persons employed in public service employment programs may gain some skills incidentally.

"Services to clients which include the employability development program may be defined as a group of discrete activities designed to

enhance the position of an individual in the labor market. One of these activities, placement -- the movement of a program participant into a job -- is the one component without which all the other components would lose meaning and value" (88, p. 1).

Job development is an activity that involves working with public or private organizations and businesses to develop job opportunities (88, p. 2).

The last set of services to be discussed are supportive in nature. They may be identified as separate program components or viewed as an integral part of the employment and training components. These services may include counseling, program and/or employment orientation, educational services including high school equivalency test preparation, basic literacy, English as a second language, transportation, child care, physical and mental health services and legal and bonding services (89, p. 1).

The supportive services provided by prime sponsors vary among programs depending on the prime sponsor's view of the role of CETA; the cost of providing such services; the availability of services through other community agencies; and, prior experience with the impact (or lack of impact) of these services on total program operation (89).

Supportive services are very important to many clients' successful involvement in and completion of vocational training programs available through CETA as well as other programs.

CETA is designed to provide vocational education as a substantial part of its services. Thus, much attention has been given to discussing it here. However, though CETA is the "giant" of the programs which provide vocational education services to the unemployed and

underemployed, there are other programs and agencies which serve populations of these groups. These programs will be discussed in the remainder of this section.

"The Work Incentive Program (WIN) authorized by the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act is administered by the Bureau of Employment Security through its State Employment Service Divisions" (78, p. 15).

This program was established to help unemployed Aid to Families with Dependent Children recipients achieve self-support through a program of training, work experience and/or employment. Under the program, every employable AFDC recipient must register for the program. Exemptions from the program are given for health problems, handicaps, home responsibilities, advanced age, student status or geographic remoteness from potential employment and/or supportive services; although these persons may participate voluntarily. Refusal to register for the program by employable persons without good cause can result in termination of their benefits (46, pp. 62-63).

The WIN program includes counseling, on-the-job training, job placement and such supportive services as are necessary to move the participant from dependency to economic self-sufficiency (91) (92). Supportive services are delivered by the Welfare department. Other services may be contracted with other agencies for groups of clients or individual clients.

As the majority of AFDC clients are women, the WIN program is very important in providing vocational education to women.

The Vocational Rehabilitation Program is by law vocationally oriented and geared to developing skills and work habits needed by the handicapped to obtain jobs in the competitive labor market (93).

Vocational Rehabilitation has been very successful in providing individualized, comprehensive rehabilitation services to those who are physically and mentally handicapped. "The program emphasizes services to those with severe physical and mental disabilities which constitute a substantial handicap to employment and for whom there is a reasonable expectation that Vocational Rehabilitation Services will lead to employment" (94, p. 1).

"To achieve the goal of employing the handicapped, Vocational Rehabilitation Services provides medical, prosthetic, psychological and other services that treat the mental and physical handicaps combined with counseling, vocational training, work experience, placement and other services that address the temporary and/or long-term employment problems related to the handicap" (95, p. ix).

Educational services such as career counseling, training in elementary and secondary schools, vocational schools, colleges and universities, business schools and sheltered workshops may be provided to Vocational Rehabilitation Services clients (93, p. 10).

Although handicapped individuals are eligible for services provided by CETA and other programs, Vocational Rehabilitation Services has and continues to be the major deliverer of vocational education services to the handicapped adult population.

The Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America is the last program providing vocational education to unemployed and underemployed to be discussed. "This program is unique among federally supported manpower programs in that they were started by a group of private citizens without federal funding" (85, p. 68).

"These centers now operate in forty-seven states including Illinois. They concentrate on skill training and job placement for members of minority groups" (96, p. 44).

OIC involves considerably more than teaching occupational skills. Underlying its approach is the belief that disadvantaged persons face greater obstacles to employment because of lack of pride and self-confidence. The classroom training approach used by OIC's give instructors the opportunity to accompany or precede skill training with instruction for personal development.

Many CETA prime sponsors contract with OIC's for the provision of vocational education and other services to CETA participants (96, p. 45).

The OIC program emphasizes minority group leadership and seeks to attract unemployed and underemployed persons in their programs. Participants in the programs are given motivational and basic work orientation, basic education, skills training and job placement assistance.

OIC is important in providing vocational skills training to segments of the unemployed population who may not be successful in more traditional settings. Their emphasis on attitudinal development and motivation along with skill training has proven successful in providing successful training and employment for hard-core unemployed persons.

The programs described in this section comprise only part of the delivery system for providing adult vocational education to the unemployed and underemployed in Illinois. If all the programs and agencies with which those agencies discussed contract are considered, they may constitute a substantial part of the delivery system. However, there

are many good programs developed and carried out at the local level throughout the state by both public and private agencies. Many of these programs address the needs of the unemployed and underemployed as well and sometimes better than the larger more well known programs discussed here. Though duplication of services is to be avoided at both the state and local level, each program plays an important role in the delivery of adult vocational education services to unemployed and underemployed adults in Illinois.

## References

1. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, v. 26, no. 2, February, 1979.

2. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis. Annual Planning Report, Fiscal Year '79. State of Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, April, 1978.

3. Committee for Economic Development. Jobs for the Hard-to-Employ. New York: Committee for Economic Development, January, 1978.

4. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration. Groups With Historically High Incidences of Unemployment. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, July, 1977.

5. Employment and Training Programs. Washington, D.C.: Commission on Federal Paperwork, July 15, 1977.

6. Congress of the United States, Congressional Budget Office, Youth Unemployment: The Outlook and Some Policy Strategies. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April, 1978.

7. Lecht, Leonard A. Employment and Unemployment: Priorities for the Next Five Years. New York: The Conference Board, Inc., 1977.

8. Congress of the United States, Congressional Budget Office, Public Employment and Training Assistance: Alternative Federal Approaches. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February 1977.

9. Training and Jobs for the Urban Poor. New York: Committee for Economic Development, July, 1970.

10. A Working Paper on the Future of Illinois. Chicago: Task Force on the Future of Illinois, January, 1979.

11. Stimulating the Economy of the Great Lake States, A Survey for Great Lakes Economic Action, Academy for Contemporary Problem, December, 1977.

12. Feldstein, Martin F. Lowering the Permanent Rate of Unemployment. Prepared for the Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, Sept. 18, 1973.

13. Clague, Ewan. Unemployment, Past, Present, and Future. Washington, D.C.: American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, June 27, 1979.

14. Becker, Joseph M. Programs to Aid the Unemployed in the 1960's. Kalamazoo, Michigan: The W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, January 1965.

15. Becker, Joseph M. In Aid of the Unemployed. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1968.

16. Report of the Governor's Committee on Unemployment. Springfield, Illinois: Economic Growth, Equal Opportunity Research Joint Effort, January, 1963.

17. Bomboy, Marylee. "Women - Working More Earning Less," Voc Ed, v. 54, no. 2, February, 1979.

18. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1975 Handbook Women Workers. Washington, D.C., 1975.

19. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau. Working Mothers and their Children. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

20. U.S. Department of Labor, "Women Increase Numbers in the Labor Force: New Record Set," Women and Work. Washington, D.C., March, 1979.

21. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of the Secretary, Women's Bureau. Why Women Work, Washington, D.C., August, 1978.

22. U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Underutilization of Women Workers. Washington, D.C., 1971.

23. Illinois Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, Occupational Information Quarterly, Chicago, Illinois, Fall, 1977.

24. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of the Secretary, Women's Bureau. 20 Facts on Women Workers. Washington, D.C., August, 1978.

25. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of the Secretary, Women's Bureau. Women With Low Incomes, Washington, D.C., November, 1977.

26. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of the Secretary Women's Bureau. A Woman's Guide to Apprenticeship, Washington, D.C., 1978.

27. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis, Veterans in Illinois, 1977, Illinois Department of Labor, August, 1978.

28. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis, Annual Planning Report Fiscal Year 1979, Department of Labor, April, 1978.

29. Northrup, James P. Old Age, Handicapped and Vietnam-Era Anti-discrimination Legislation. Philadelphia: Industrial Research Unit, The Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, 1977.

30. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings. Vol. 26, no. 2, February, 1979.

31. State of Illinois, Governor's Office of Manpower and Human Development, Special Report to the Governor's Advisory Council on Manpower, Information on Manpower Services to Veterans. Springfield: Governor's Office of Manpower and Human Development, May 1975.

32. Northrup, James P. Old Age, Handicapped and Vietnam-Era Anti-discrimination Legislation. Philadelphia: Industrial Research Unit, University of Pennsylvania, 1977.

33. Office of the Secretary, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Annual Report to the President and Congress on Federal Activities Related to the Administration of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 as Amended, Fiscal Year 1976, Washington, D.C., 1976.

34. Greenleigh Associates, A Study to Develop a Model for Employment Services for the Handicapped. New York, Greenleigh Associates, Inc., August 1969.

35. Levitan, Sar A. and Taggert, Robert, Jobs for the Disabled. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1977.

36. Berkowitz, Monroe et al. Public Policy Toward Disability. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1976.

37. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis, Annual Planning Report State of Illinois Fiscal Year 1979. Illinois Department of Labor, April 1978.

38. State of Illinois, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation. Estimates of Disabled Persons in Illinois.

39. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis, Annual Planning Report, Fiscal Year 1979, State of Illinois, April 1978.

40. Adams, Orvil V. and Mangum, Garth L. The Lingering Crisis of Youth Unemployment. The W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, Kalamazoo, Michigan, June 1978.

41. Congress of the United States, Congressional Budget Office, Youth Unemployment: The Outlook and Some Policy Changes, Washington, D.C., April 1978.

42. Congress of the United States, Congressional Budget Office, The Teenage Unemployment Problem: What are the Options?. Washington, D.C., October 14, 1979.

43. Williams, Walter E. Youth and Minority Unemployment. Hoover Institution Press, Stanford, California, 1977.

44. Sheppard, Harold L. New Perspectives on Older Workers. Kalamazoo, Michigan: The W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, May 1971.

45. Rosenblum, Marc. Recession's Continuing Victim: The Older Worker. Prepared for the Special Committee on Aging, United States Senate, Washington, D.C., July, 1976.

46. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis. Annual Planning Report Fiscal Year 1979. State of Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, April, 1978.

47. Sheppard, Harold L. and Rix, Sara E. The Graying of Working America. New York: The Free Press, 1977.

48. Sheppard, Harold L. A Working Paper on the Future of Illinois. Chicago: Task Force on the Future of Illinois, January, 1979.

49. Committee for Economic Development. Jobs for the Hard-to-Employ. New York: Committee for Economic Development, January, 1978.

50. Rosenblum, Marc. The Next Steps In Combating Age Discrimination in Employment, With Special Reference to Mandatory Retirement Policy. Prepared for the Special Committee on Aging United States Senate, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, August, 1977.

51. Kendig, William L. Age Discrimination in Employment. New York: American Management Associations, 1978.

52. Kendig, William L. Mandatory Retirement: The Social and Human Cost of Enforced Idleness. Report by the Select Committee on Aging, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office August, 1977.

53. Kendig, William L. Alternatives to Retirement. Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Retirement Income and Employment. Prepared for the Select Committee on Aging, Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

54. Northrup, James P. Old Age, Handicapped and Vietnam-Era Anti-discrimination Legislation. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, Industrial Research Unit, 1977.

55. Kaplan, H. Roy. American Minorities and Economic Opportunity. Itasca, Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1977.

56. Kovarsky, Irving and Albrecht, William. Black Unemployment. Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State University Press, 1970.

57. Employment and Training Report to the Governor Appendix II. Springfield, Illinois: Governor's Advisory Council on Manpower, November 8, 1976.

58. A Working Paper on the Future of Illinois. Chicago: Task Force on the Future of Illinois, January, 1979.

59. U.S. Department of Labor. Employment and Training Report of the President 1977. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

60. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis. Annual Planning Report, Fiscal Year 1979. State of Illinois, Bureau of Employment Security, April, 1978.

61. U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Last Hired, First Fired -- Layoffs and Civil Rights, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February, 1977.

62. McMillan, Kathleen A. Minorities and Women In Private Industry 1975. Prepared for the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

63. Congress of the United States, Congressional Budget Office. Public Employment and Training Assistance: Alternative Federal Approaches. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February, 1977.

64. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Black Americans -A Chartbook. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

65. Training and Jobs for the Urban Poor. New York: Committee for Economic Development, July, 1970.

66. Feldstein, Martin F. Lowering the Permanent Rate of Unemployment. Prepared for the Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 18, 1973.

67. U.S. Department of Commerce, Social and Economic Statistics Administration. The Social and Economic Status of the Black Population in the United States 1974. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, July, 1975.

68. National Council for the Social Studies, Task Force on Work and Unemployment. Studies in Pbulic Policy, Unemployment: A Sourcebook on Unemployment.

69. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration. Groups With Historically High Incidences of Unemployment. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, July, 1977.

70. The Center for Studies In Vocational and Technical Ed., The Education and Training of Racial Minorities. University of Wisconsin, 1967.

71. Sobin, Dennis P. The Working Poor. Port Washington, New York: Kennikat Press, 1973.

72. Upgrading Law-Level Employment: A Major National Challenge. Washington, D.C.: National Planning Association, February, 1975.

73. U.S. Department of Labor. Employment and Training Report of the President 1978. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

74. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis. Annual Planning Report, Fiscal Year '79. State of Illinois, Bureau of Employment Security, April, 1978.

75. Schiller, Bradley R. The Economics of Poverty and Discrimination. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.

76. O'Toole, James. The Reserve Army of the Underemployed. Prepared for U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

77. Carones, Pasquale A. et al. Misfits in Industry. New York: SP Medical and Scientific Books, 1978.

78. Illinois Governor's Advisory Council on Manpower. Employment and Training Report to the Governor. Appendix III, Springfield: Governor's Office of Manpower and Human Development, Employment and Training Program Operations, 1976.

79. Job Training Programs Need More Effective Management, Report to the Congress by the Comptroller General of the United States, Washington, D.C.: United States General Accounting Office, July 7, 1978.

80. Adams, Arvil and Mangum, Garth L. The Lingering Crisis of Youth Unemployment. Kalamazoo, Michigan: The W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, June, 1978.

81. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Intake and Assessment: Ceta Program Models, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

82. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Summer Youth Employment Programs: Implementation Regulations for Summer. Federal Register, Tuesday, March 6, 1979.

83. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Comprehensive and Employment and Training Act: Proposed Rules for Programs Under Titles I, II, VI, and VII of the Act, Federal Register, January 19, 1979.

84. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Classroom Training -- The OIC Approach: CETA Program Models, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

85. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. On-the-Job Training: CETA Program Models. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

86. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Work Experience Prospectives: CETA Program Models. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

87. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Public Service Employment: CETA Program Models. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

88. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Job Development and Placement: CETA Program Models, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

89. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Supportive Services, CETA Program Models. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

90. Employment and Training Programs. Washington, D.C.: Commission on Federal Paperwork, July, 15, 1977.

91. Employment and Training Programs. Washington, D.C.: Congress of the United States, Congressional Budget Office, May 4, 1976.

92. The Effectiveness of Manpower Training Programs: A Compilation of Observations and Conclusions. Washington, D.C.: Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service, May 19, 1973.

93. Federal Programs for Education of the Handicapped: Issues and Problems. A report to the Congress by the Assistant Comptroller General, Washington, D.C.: U.S. General Accounting Office, December, 1974.

94. Annual Report to the President and the Congress on Federal Activities Related to the Administration of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 as Amended. Fiscal Year, 1976. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of the Secretary, 1976.

95. Levitan, Sar A. and Taggert, Robert. Jobs for the Disabled. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1977.

96. Jobs for the Hard-to-Employ. New York: Committee for Economic Development, January, 1978.

## VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE AND FOR RE-ENTERING THE PAID WORK FORCE

The old view of adulthood as that great stable portion of life where one "marked time" is being widely challenged today by a variety of people for various reasons:

1. People live longer.
2. Our population is becoming proportionately older.
3. Adult students are enrolling in greater numbers than ever before.
4. People demonstrate continued growth and competence well into old age.

During the past four decades there has been a significant increase in the interest in researching adult development. Despite this increase in research, a thoroughly detailed mosaic of adult life is still not available for study. In fact, few if any pieces of the adult life picture are available for minority group members, women and working class men -- very few of the adult development research studies have centered on them. This void is especially true concerning the pictures(s) of adult vocational development which is available today.

However, McCoy (1978), points out that the big picture is being filled in, if more slowly than we'd like:

> The important thing to remember, though, is that adulthood is at long last being extensively studied and those segments of society not yet studied will eventually come under the lights. The benefits to us are that adulthood can now leave the realm of the mysterious and unmanageable and we can share some common ground with the rest of humanity (69, p. 12).

The time appears to be right for vocational education to focus attention on adult vocational development.

Vocational development theorists have concentrated on vocational development up through early adulthood, especially developments during the adolescent stage. Consequently, they have emphasized initial career choices rather than life-span development and choices. While their theories were consistent with the view of the life cycle which had been prevalent up until fairly recently, they are not adequate for the emerging perspective of adulthood as a period of active and systematic change shaped by the uniqueness in the content of each individual's life.

In 1971, the term "career education" was popularized by former United States Commissioner of Education, Sidney Marland. Herr (1977) reported that:

> The authority of Marland's position as well as the timeliness of his ideas (more emphasis on vocational education, as the core of career education, and less on the general curriculum; each person to exit from high school prepared for either continuing education of productive work; education for and about work; and increasing career options open to individuals) encouraged many people to begin working on career education in all parts of the country. Almost every state and many local schools adopted a definition of career education, and many of them began programs (21, p. 184).

Most of the definitions were influenced by Hoyt's definition in Career Education: What It Is and How To Do It (34) which had grown out of research on vocational development. The programs were marked by their inclusion of the terms -- "awareness," "exploration" and "preparation".

Herr's review of the unfolding career education scene offers some valuable insights into the thinking of vocational educators and counselors and pinpoints a number of problems confronting the profession today.

> Almost every program began to try to develop awareness of the world of work in the elementary school, exploration in the junior high school, and preparation in the senior high school. (Unfortunately, some career educators assumed that each of these three phases ended at the school level in which it began instead of recognizing that each continues throughout life.) Few career education programs, in spite of their rhetoric about serving all people, made any provision for adults, either through educational assistance in maintaining career competence or by recognizing that many adults need educational assistance to further career awareness, exploration, and preparation for changed careers. At the same time, secondary school vocational education continued a trend of concentrating more and more on school-aged youth and less and less on meeting adult needs (21, p. 185).

The focus of this study is on a large and diverse category of adults, identified as mid-life career changers, who can benefit from vocational education. It has been repeatedly suggested that vocational education must play an expanded role in the broad area of adult education. Little, however, has been written about the specifics of this role. The "whats", "whys", and "hows" of such an expanded role need to be more fully explored.

The expansion of the role(s) which vocational education can play in the area of mid-life career change depends heavily on an increased base of knowledge in this area. Several specific issues need to be researched further. For example, how many people are mid-life career changers? Wirtz (1976) commented on this issue at the national level:

> We haven't the vaguest notion of the number of people (only that it is exceedingly large) who come -- some place between the ages of 25 and 50 -- to a point of significant realization that they ought to be on a different career course, not just as a matter of boredom or frustration or some kind of whim, but as a calculated judgment about improving their worth both to themselves and to the whole system. (63, p. 129)

It would appear that we have no better notion of the number of mid-life career changers in Illinois at this point in time.

Wirtz went on to say that "it is a strange system that makes no provision for the educational renewal opportunities which would give these mid-career decision points the meaning and significance they ought to have" (p. 129). Levitan (1978) seemed to be talking to the same point (educational renewal opportunities) when he asked: "Is vocational education ready to change its ways of doing things?" (40, p. 6).

Another major issue is the pressing need to know much more about the many different types of persons who might be called mid-life career changers. If we accept the definition of career change as "a change in the occupation or profession (paid or unpaid) being followed as one's work in life," then one very important sub-group of career changers is composed of persons re-entering the paid work force after some extended absence. Displaced homemakers have probably been the most widely publicized segment of this sub-group and a large percentage of them fall into the mid-life age range of 30 to 50 years old. The number of detailed research studies on this segment, however, has been very limited.

Other segments of this sub-group undoubtedly include persons leaving the military services; persons leaving institutions (health, educational, penal); persons who have been receiving unemployment compensation, disability compensation, or other public assistance; and others.

The identification and study of this and other sub-groups of mid-life career changers is fundamental to an increased understanding of the role(s) which adult vocational education should play in the future.

Yet another major issue is the need to identify the barriers confronting mid-life career changers; the differences between successful and unsuccessful changers; the services currently available to them; and the directions vocational education should be taking in assisting these changers.

Adult Life Cycle Research

During the past four decades there has been a significant increase in the interest in researching adult development. The pioneering scholarly research defined life stages and the central issues of each stage; identified crisis points between stages; and explored the place of external events and subjective experiences in adult life development (McCoy, 1978, p. 7). In the decade of the 70's adult life cycle research, building on earlier research, really flourished. In addition, public interest was sparked. Sheehy captured the interest of the public in her best seller, Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life (1976) and Elizabeth Kubler-Ross delineated the stages of dying and presented a view of death as a metamorphosis into another kind of life.

Nurgarten, a pioneer in adult life cycle research, presented highlights of the work of a number of the most important researchers in this area to the American Psychological Association during the Master Lectures on Developmental Psychology in 1976. The remainder of this section is taken from these highlights as summarized in the Adult Life Cycle - Training Manual and Reader by McCoy, Ryan and Leihtenberg (1978, pp. 7-9).

Buhler defined life stages of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline after analyzing the life stories of individuals of varied nationality, occupation, and social class. She looked at

external events (what one did, his/her friend), internal events (what one thinks and feels about one's life), and life accomplishments and products. The socio-economic expectations of the person were the basis of her stage definitions.

Frenkel-Brunswik, Buhler's student, concluded from her biographic studies of 400 persons (including Casanova, Goethe, and Queen Victoria) that people passed through the following life periods: construction -- birth to 40; culmination -- 40-50; and reduction -- 60 and over. She looked at the external events as well as the subjective experiences of her subjects.

Erikson used both physiological and societal consideration in charting eight life stages. Each life stage unfolds in sequence, each is triggered by a turning point of increased personal vulnerability and potentially, and each confronts the individual with central issues demanding resolution. His adult stages and life tasks are outlined as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Young adulthood | Intimacy vs. isolation |
| Middle age | Generativity (a commitment to and caring for the next generation) vs. stagnation |
| Maturity | Integrity (a belief that one's life has had purpose) vs. despair |

Havinghurst saw the tasks of adulthood stemming mainly from the social roles adults take on -- worker, mate, parent, homemaker, citizen -- and he concluded that each developmental task produces a readiness to learn which at its peak presents a teachable moment.

Neugarten and her colleagues on the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago, in their study of middle age and late

life, contributed much insight into the way social and cultural influences affect adult development. Their research showed that most people have definite ideas that they learn from society about appropriate ages to do certain things (marrying, having children, selecting one's career direction). They also found that in the early or mid-40's an individual stops thinking in terms of time since birth and begins to compute time left to live.

Kohlberg developed the idea of moral and ethical development with the following range: egocentric judgment, punishment and obedience, instrumental relativist (you scratch my back, I'll scratch yours), good-boy approval, law and order, social contract, universal ethical principle.

Loevinger introduced a unique model of personality development in stages in adulthood that included those of conforming, conscientious, autonomous, and integrated. She described her stages in terms of four major dimensions: impulse control, character development, interpersonal style, conscious preoccupations, and cognitive style.

Gould compared out-patients at UCLA's Neuropsychiatric Institute and a non-patient group, and through observation and questionnaires he learned that adults generally pass through seven developmental stages, each stage having its special conflicts, joys, fears and beliefs.

Levinson -- building on earlier research about life stages and special life stage tasks -- studied men ages 18-47, and concluded that men develop by periods (departure from family, entrance into the adult world, age-30 transition, settling down, mid-life transition, and restabilization or entry into middle adulthood). He also saw each period engaging adults in special tasks that they must master in order to take on later tasks without handicap.

Sheehy researched the life stories of 115 middle-class Americans, ages 18-55, to (1) trace inner change in her subjects, (2) compare the developmental patterns of men and women, and (3) examine the "predictable crises for couples." Her conclusions: Men and women continue growing up adult from 18-50. There are predictable crises (passages) at each step. The steps are the same for both sexes but the developmental rhythms are not. We can use each crisis to stretch to our full potential.

Lowenthal and her associates in the Human Development Program at the University of California focused on several major transition periods of adult life (reminders of Erikson's turning points). The subjects were mainly middle and low-middle class. Two positive (and voluntary) transitions studied were: (1) leaving school and moving toward job, college, and marriage and (2) leaving the newly wed stage toward parenthood. The two negative (and involuntary) transitions selected were: (1) the empty-nest stage and (2) retirement. The intent of the ongoing research: further comprehension of the role of stress derived from both positive and negative changes in adult development.

Vaillant, over a 35 year period, studied a group of 95 men from the classes of 1942, 1943, and 1944 from an unnamed "highly competitive college" that is undoubtedly Harvard. The subjects were an elite of white males. The work provides histories of the life cycles and maturational processes of the men. Vaillant, seeking to define criteria of mental health, found that some men reacted ingeniously to their life tasks while others remained "locked in patterns of defeat."

From Progoff's long experience with helping people to use intensive journal writing to draw their lives into focus, he saw the life cycle as

measured in subjective rather than chronological time. To Progoff the appropriate question is: What are the ten or twelve meaningful points in the movement of your life as your life presents itself to you now? In his judgment, this inner sensing of the meaning of life is all the more imperative today when past patterns of history are not operative and meaning is not given from outside by tradition. He sees each "meaningful point" having a cycle of its own with a beginning, middle, waning, and ending and notes that several processes are typically moving parallel in our lives, each with its own life history. Progoff perceives transitions as painful, creative "dark nights of the soul," with an emptiness rendering us vulnerable and open to change. From this inner search for meaning he sees the developmental dividend of "an additional inner muscle, an accretion of sensitivity that comprises wisdom." A person has a life when life has initiated the person and he/she becomes aware of pain.

Kubler-Ross, who in the 1950's pioneered in studying the stages of dying (she identified these as denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance), by 1977 was viewing death as a metamorphosis into another kind of life. "Death, as we have understood it until recently, does not exist. Death simply means the shedding of the physical body. The rest of you continues to exist, to grow, to experience."

Historical Overview of Vocational Development Research and Vocational Guidance

A number of authors have reviewed the concept of vocational development (frequently used interchangably with the term career development), have described the major approaches or viewpoints, and have generally agreed that the topic can be discussed in the timeframe of

pre-1951 and 1951 to the present (21, pp. 151-180; 4, pp. 57-131; 1, pp. 13-70; 34, pp. 51-79; 41, pp. 235-262; 35, pp. 263-295; 30, pp. 7-17/ 32-33; 13, pp. 131-165). Herr (1977) wrote that:

> the term vocational development embraces a body of speculation and research which attempts to understand and describe such areas of vocational behavior as the relationship of different kinds of self-characteristics to success in different kinds of learning or work tasks, on what bases people choose occupations, factors affecting different choice-making styles, family and social elements affecting experiences as a basis for planning or occupational preparation (21, p. 151).

In reviewing the major viewpoints of researchers involved in vocational development theories, Bailey and Stadt suggest that they fall into six major groupings, according to their primary orientation: trait-factor, developmental, psychoanalytic, personality, motivational, and general approaches (4, pp. 87-92).

The trait factor approach is probably the one most familiar to the vocational educator. It can be traced back to Parson's (father of vocational guidance) three step process of (1) a clear understanding of self; (2) a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of various occupations; and (3) true reasoning, or "matching," between the two sets of information (4, p. 87). Historically, this approach has dictated much of the practice of vocational guidance and has had considerable influence on American educational and occupational thought. The trait-factor approach has many critics today who see it as too simplistic and too deterministic. Herr agrees with the critics but asserts that "virtually all of the approaches to vocational development include trait-factor information, but the emphasis they give to its use vary markedly" (21, p. 153).

During the early 1950's, alternative theories of vocational behavior began to emerge. Ginzberg and his colleagues are credited with having laid the base for the current conceptions of vocational development as a longitudinal (developmental) process. They asserted that:

> occupational choice is a developmental process: it is not a single decision, but a series of decisions made over a period of years. Each step in the process has a meaningful relation to those which precede and follow it (24, p. 185).

While Ginzberg et al. speculated about the whole lifespan, their work principally focused upon the periods from birth to the early twenties which culminate in the initial vocational choice.

By the 1960's, dozens of authors were offering theories regarding the process of choosing a career. One of the most influential of these has been Super. He and his various colleagues have been working on another developmental approach which is closely related conceptually to the early work of Ginzberg. Taking Ginzberg's staging phenomena along with some earlier perspectives of Buehler, Super created a structure incorporating the whole lifespan. His structure is composed of five stages: growth (from birth to approximately 14 years of age), exploration (ages 15 to 24), establishment (ages 25 to 44), maintenance (ages 45 to 64) and decline (age 65 on). Each of these five stages is divided into substages of developmental tasks. The importance of his theory is that it is seen as providing a research base from two major concepts: that vocational development is "an ongoing, continuous, generally irreversible process," and that it is "an orderly, patterned process" (59, p. 42). As further revisions have been added to his vocational-development theory, the importance of the development and implementation of the self-concept has steadily increased.

Tiedeman and O'Hara are also considered prominent vocational development theorists. One of their most important areas of study has been the meeting of the anticipation of an occupational choice and the actual induction into the chosen occupation. They theorize that:

> if induction requires accommodations beyond the limits of the individual's tolerance or beyond those permitted by the self-concept, the process of exploration and anticipation will likely be reinstituted as the individual moves toward occupational change (21, p. 161).

They have also used Erikson's model of psychosocial crises (20) encountered at various developmental stages as an explanation for differences in vocational development.

The developmental theories have taken some giant steps beyond Parson's "one time," ideal trait and factor matching; however, their emphasis has been heavily concentrated on vocational development up through early adulthood, especially during the adolescent stage, and similarly they have emphasized initial career choices rather than life-span development and choices. This seems to be consistent with the view of the life cycle which has been prevalent up until farily recently. As Knox points out

> In earlier eras, attention to human growth and development was focused on childhood and adolescence, and adulthood was considered a period of stability (38, p. 1).

The third major orientation is often called the "psychoanalytic." Psychoanalytic theories of occupational choice have rather limited scopes and have dealt with the differential ability of various occupations to satisfy instinctual needs, to gratify impulses, and to reduce anxiety (4, p. 90-91).

The fourth major orientation is often referred to as "personality approach." Holland has been the major theorist of this orientation. He

theorizes that each individual develops a behavioral style (a result of interaction between heredity and environment) that can be described in relation to one of six personality categories: artistic, conventional, enterprising, investigative, realistic, or social. Furthermore, because people tend to gravitate to settings where others are seen as sharing one's values and interests, different occupations tend to attract different kinds of people and some of them tend to be "loaded" with a particular emphasis. Thus, he classifies occupations into the same six categories. For Holland, then, the function of occupational choice is to match, as congruently as possible, the personality style and characteristics of the work setting (33).

The fifth orientation is often called "need theory approach" and its most prominent theorist has been Roe. Her work has adapted Maslow's theory of prepotent needs to vocational behavior and has emphasized the effect of childrearing practices upon adult orientations. She has developed a field-and-level conception of occupation families.

The sixth orientation is often labelled "general approaches." There seem to be several new points of view emerging (4, pp. 92-93). Miller and O'Hara are attempting to relate learning theory to career development. Another type of theory which is being seen more frequently in the literature is decision theory. Crites reports that although they have been previously found in the field of economics, he feels that these models seem to have the potential for determining the "probability" of various courses of action, i.e., occupational decisions (13, pp. 105-108). There are also a number of emerging theories of career development of women. This has been an underdeveloped area until recently.

All of the orientations seem to suggest that there is an interdependence among personality variables, choice dimensions, and environmental conditions (4, p. 83). These are the major theories then that vocational educator-practitioner might be assumed to have been exposed to in their professional training and/or careers. It is the framework around which the concept of vocational development has been built in the vocational education profession.

This framework, however, would be incomplete without some discussion of the relationship of "career education." The importance of the emergence of the concept of career education was discussed earlier. It was pointed out that in spite of a great deal of rhetoric about serving all of the people, few if any career education programs actually made any provision for adults and furthermore, vocational education at the secondary level continued a trend of more and more emphasis on school-aged youth and less and less attention on meeting the needs of adults.

Mid-Life Career Development and Vocational Educator-Practitioners

The literature reviewed in this section is based primarily on the basic journals with which vocational educator-practitioners might be expected to be familiar. Voc Ed., The Personnel and Guidance Journal, and The Vocational Guidance Quarterly were reviewed from 1970 to present for articles which dealt primarily or in some significant manner, with the topic of mid-life career change.

Eight articles and one editorial column (5, 7, 27, 28, 51, 54, 57, 60, 61) were found in Voc Ed which fit the above criteria. Basically the articles dealt with the broad area of adult education and the suggestion that vocational education should play an expanded role there.

Although mid-life career change was not often discussed in great detail, there did seem to be an increasing recognition of the fact that vocational education has a serious role to play in the area of retraining adult workers. (A developmental perspective was indicated by the fact that a variety of types of workers who might need retraining was recognized -- i.e., technologically displaced workers, physically handicapped workers (both by birth and by some accident at some point in adulthood), workers personnally desirous of change, etc.).

Only one article dealt specifically with mid-life career change (57).

Schlossberg addressed the question of why people 35 and over changed jobs. This article reflected a solid understanding of several important ideas found in the current research literature on this topic:

1. Without question, work is of crucial importance in the lives of most adults ... but simply being employed does not insure fulfillment. People frequently find themselves growing discontent with their jobs (p. 38). (She discusses not only professional dissatisfactions but also blue-collar blues, women in homemaking roles and white collar dissatisfactions.)
2. It is possible also that too much emphasis has been placed on negative factors that influence career change (p. 38). (She cites cases of career motivated by self-discovery, challenge, emerging interests and needs, and determination. The references include Miestrand's conclusions that middle age is a period of increased options and continued development).
3. The paucity of empirical research on the subject might suggest that career change is rare ... Yet it is literally true that career change is a constant in adulthood. Every human

being constantly makes changes, even when remaining in the same job (p. 38).

4. In the past it was taken for granted that one chose a career early in life -- usually at the point of graduation from high school -- and was then locked into that choice for good. As a result of this kind of thinking, most vocational theorists have focused on school-age children and adolescents. Consequently, career development of adults has been overlooked (p. 39).
5. We are left with a vacuum on career counseling for adults (p. 40).

Schlossberg concluded the article by urging that all educators, particularly vocational educators, become facilitators of adult development by supporting flexible entry and exit as part of existing training programs.

Using the same timeframe and the same criteria for selection of articles, a review of the Personnel and Guidance Journal showed the following: four articles prior to November, 1976 (26, 56, 66, 67); a special issue on counseling over the lifespan in November, 1976 (49); and 6 more articles (6, 43, 22, 31, 48, 53).

The feeling of a "developmental perspective" to vocational guidance and human development stood out strongly in the articles, especially in the special issue on "counseling over the life span." While the major objectives of these articles seem to be (1) to broaden the perspective and (2) to heighten the expertise of personnel and guidance workers who assist older and younger persons in progressing over the life span, much more attention was given to the first objective with con-

siderably less attention given to the second one. This pattern was evident throughout the articles reviewed in this section.

In one of the few articles to discuss a model, Munson proposed a "life-experiences model" in career education (43). He asserted that a review of research in vocational development and in adult development dictated that a different base for facilitating and enhancing career education needed to be adopted. He stressed that career development:

1. is a process extending over a lifespan.
2. is concerned with those physiological, psychological, sociological, and economic forces impinging on the decisions of an individual that makes both internal (self) and external (environmental) considerations necessary and significant.
3. consists of a series of work life decisions that begin early in life and culminate (over a period of time) in occupational involvement and over the life span in the evolution of a career.
4. is experiential in nature necessitating trial-exploratory behavior that allows the individual to explore "self" (being) and "self in situation" (behaving).
5. is the progressive and compromising process of achieving self-identity in work roles (p. 136).

The crucial thing about this article is Munson's recognition that a developmental perspective in adult development should dictate a change in the way career education is typically addressed in elementary and secondary schools. He seemed to be saying that practioners must demonstrate an understanding of the developmental perspective by modifying their practices to reflect this understanding.

Again, using the same timeframe and the same criteria for selection of articles, a review of the Vocational Guidance Quarterly showed the following: 6 articles (55, 17, 8 65, 58, 64) were found prior to the June 1977 special issue on mid-life career change (68) and one article after it (18).

In a report of her study of all the male students enrolled in any of the Wayne State University Colleges during 1967-68, Schlossberg suggested that the popular vocational developmental models be modified in cyclical fashion:

> If developmental models were cyclical rather than linear, they would provide a more comprehensive backdrop against which to evaluate adult career change. Exploration takes place all through life; its quality and focus may change, but the process is the same (55, p. 39).

She also stressed the need to reassess whether higher education's requirements and processes were discouraging adult students rather than facilitating them and the need to establish adult counseling centers.

Dubin has written rather extensively on the topic of professional obsolescence. Based on a series of state and national surveys on mid-career updating needs of various professional groups conducted over an eight-year span, he concluded that due to the rapid discovery of new knowledge and changes in personal and organizational objectives, knowledge becomes obsolete earlier than before -- often by mid career (15, 16). These findings indicated that both psychological and organizational variables are critical to the updating process. He identified six:

1) motivational factors related to perceived rewards
2) organizational climate encouraging updating
3) supervision fostering further development
4) challenging problem-solving tasks
5) colleague interactions
6) management philosophy requiring employee updating (pp. 154-156).

Theme issues of the Vocational Guidance Quarterly are rare but the June 1977 issue (68) was devoted to the mid-life career theme. Several of the articles were taken from presentations at the 1976 convention by the NVGA Commission on Mid-Life Careers. The articles were extremely varied. Peatling hypothesized on "a sense of justice in Mid-life" and suggested that practitioners "should be sensitive to the various physical, psychological, sociological and work-related problems that mark the middle years of life" (p. 308). Heald identified a number of common events in mid-life: emptying the nest, female menopause and the male climacteric, variety of patterns of fiscal events (increased strain or released strained), role changes conjoined with fiscal events, new awareness of subtle physical changes, pressure of work as seniority increases, security doubts in face of galloping technology (displacement, new requirements and expectations), and security doubts in the face of demographic changes (loss of career mobility) (pp. 309-311). He ended by quoting Levinson's conclusions that the inevitable result of the changes and pressures is alteration:

> Even if nothing in his external life changes, the (person) does. (One) cannot return to a simple remain in the earlier life structure. Even if the structure stays relatively intact externally, there are inevitable internal changes that give it a different meaning (p. 312).

Schlossberg presented an argument for the need to arrange the environment (vis a vis industrial programs, educational programs and practices, legislation and counseling) to accommodate this view of human existence that includes continuous reevaluation" (p. 318). Thomas presented an interesting discussion of the issue of whether a career change was voluntary or forced and the need to study the relationship

between career and life-style change in a more systematic way. He developed an interesting analogy of career change and divorce:

> Career change by itself is only a rough indicator of what is going on in an individual's life during the mid-life period, much as divorce is a very gross indication of the quality of family life (p. 326).

and recommended that the full spectrum of educational and counseling services be made available to middle-aged and older persons.

Entine proposed a mid-career model for counseling processes which (1) incorporated consideration of both the internal and external factors that can lead to career and lifestyle change and (2) differentiated between anticipated and unanticipated causes. The model also suggested that counseling processes for mid-career changes are likely to require both personal and career counseling responses. Furthermore, this combination is best determined by the type of change agent that encourages the individual to seek or require counseling assistance. One of the examples he gave was that

> greater proportions of personal counseling relative to the career counseling are likely to be required if individuals are experiencing unanticipated internal events (serious illness, divorce, death of spouse or children, etc.). Significant personal counseling is likely to be required to help individual's deal with unanticipated personal dilemmas. Career counseling is likely to play a secondary role as a new or changed work situation may be required after the unanticipated personal changes have been resolved (p. 335).

In an earlier article in Industrial Gerontology (19), he had suggested a model for effective mid-career counseling techniques that integrated concern for both the personal and economic changes that can effect life.

The remaining articles in this special issue centered on the reentry of women into the labor force, leisure and career development, and implications for minorities.

Dwight (18) reported on a study of employed adults from an industrial area of Baltimore who were classified as Realistic (on Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory) which showed that a majority of these blue-collar workers aspired to work in the white collar world but that they are apparently unable to move out of this classification. She made the suggestion that community colleges in industrial areas should investigate the needs of their areas and offer specific programs that would provide blue-collar workers the opportunity to change their situation.

There is evidence of increased interest on the topic of mid-life career change and on adult development and learning in general by vocational education-practioners. The most promising finding of this review is that the profession is embracing a developmental perspective. This stood out clearly in the majority of the journal articles.

Although the number of articles on the topic was not large when the total number of articles published was considered, the articles did cover a variety of aspects of the topic and the two special issues helped to focus much needed attention on the subject.

There was evidence of interest in several important aspects of the topic such as: studying the decision making processes of adults; becoming knowledge brokers and change agents; understanding the relationship between historical and personal trends; sensing the importance of helping people to become more "proactive" in dealing with life; and understanding the variability among adults and the fact that variability increases for most of adulthood.

It is important to note that the discussion of the topic of mid-life career change did not fall victim to oversimilification (i.e., that all people must have profound mid-life crises, must change jobs, etc.).

There seemed to be a good understanding that it is a complex topic which needs to be more fully researched. However, there is a real lack of emphasis on generating useful questions for practioners to be asked and a lack of possible strategies for them to be trying. The "how" and "why" are missing from the literature being aimed at practioners.

This is not to suggest that there are specific answers but only to stress that the profession should be moving beyond the "rhetoric of developmental perspective." There is a great deal of knowledge on change events and general adult learning theory now available which should prove helpful to vocational educator-practitioners.

Purpose of study

The aim of this pilot study is to begin to answer the following research questions:

1. How prevalent is the phenomenon of mid-life career change among residents of Illinois?
2. What are the most common barriers identified by mid-life career changers?
3. What are the most common ways in which mid-life career changers respond to these barriers?
4. What are the major characteristics of mid-life career changers?
5. How prevalent is the phenomenon of re-entry into the paid labor market after some extended absence among residents of Illinois?
6. What are the most common barriers identified by re-entry persons?
7. What are the most common ways in which re-entry persons respond to these barriers?
8. What are the major characteristics of re-entry persons?
9. What is the current status of adult vocational education in Illinois for mid-life career changers?

The findings from this pilot study should provide a framework for further research into the broad area of adult vocational development,

especially mid-life career development, and the role(s) adult vocational education should play in Illinois.

The findings should also provide direction for new and existing adult vocational education programs and insure that they are consistent with the emerging perspective of adulthood as a dynamic rather than static; controllable rather than fateful; and exciting rather than placid period of life.

Definitions

Career Change. A change in the occupation or profession (paid or unpaid) being followed as one's work in life. The 1970 Bureau of the Census Occupational Classification Codes were used throughout this pilot study to identify specific careers and to certify change.

Career Change Type Categories*

Type A: Change is predicated on the fact that some major event compels the changer to reformulate the meaning of her/his life and personal goals.

Examples of major events: Injury, incarceration, institutionalization, technological displacement, marriage, divorce, re-marriage, birth/adoption of children, gain of other dependents, death/injury, illness of significant other, emptying nest, etc.

Type B: Change is predicated primarily by a gradual disenchantment with some aspect(s) of the changer's career position.

Examples: Type of work, physical demands, fringe benefits, economic benefits, time demands, etc.

Type C: Change is predicated on the fact that although considerable satisfaction is still derived from the career position, the changer perceives that another would be even more satisfying.

Examples: Desire to do (be) a more valuing thing, desire for a new challenge, experience gained from a hobby, or past experience, etc.

* Based on a model developed by Clopton in his exploratory study of career changers to be classified into one of three categories.

Mid-Life. The several years on either side of 40 that constitute a transitional period between early and middle adulthood. An arbitrarily chosen range of ages 30 to 50 is used throughout this pilot study.

Re-Entry Persons. Career changers who have been out of the paid labor force for the arbitrarily chosen minimum of at least one year and who are attempting to find paid employment in the labor force.

Traditionally Sex-Appropriate Career. Occupations or professions which have historically been sex-identified as appropriate for males or females. E.g., nursing has traditionally been a sex-appropriate career for females; auto mechanics has traditionally been a sex-appropriate career for males.

Limitations. This pilot was limited in depth and scope by the short time period allowed for its completion. It was completed during the time frame of 2/1/79 through 6/15/79.

Secondly, it was limited due to budgetary reasons. Only two locations (Chicago City and Peoria County) were included in the population. However, under this constraint, it was felt that data from a large metropolitan area and a small SMSA (including the rural portion) would give some sense of variance in the population as well as allow for some interesting comparisons.

Thirdly, although the data presented in this pilot study provide a unique glimpse of movement of Illinois residents between occupations and in and out of the paid labor force, they are limited by the inability of all persons to accurately recall past activities and by missing or incomplete responses to the questionnaire.

## Methodology

A descriptive research design was utilized in this pilot study. Descriptive research provides a framework for describing and interpret-

ing what currently exists in relation to a particular problem or issue (Cook, 1975). The issue which was examined by this pilot study was the nature of mid-life career change and re-entry into the paid labor force among Illinois residents and its relationship to adult vocational education.

Given the nature of a pilot study as a preliminary investigation, the lack of information on "the" population of mid-life career changers and re-entry persons in Illinois, and the time and budgetary constraints outlined in the limitations section, a telephone survey method was chosen. The advantages of the telephone survey method are that it (1) has multiple uses (screens for special populations, locates respondents, makes appointments for later interviews), (2) allows control over the interviewing situation, (3) is both speedy and efficient, (4) is economical, (5) allows for some freedom in questionnaire design and construction (telephone interviews can be longer than mail questionnaires, can "probe" for essential information, and can ask more personal questions without the threat of "eye contact"), (6) has the ability to reach the unreachable (people in high crime districts as well as in restricted high rent districts), and (7) generally has a low nonresponse rate (SRL, 1979).

A contract was awarded to the Survey Research Laboratory (SRL), an all-campus research and service unit of the University of Illinois, to provide consultation and service for this pilot study. An SRL survey research specialist provided consultation to the investigator throughout the pilot study and coordinated the SRL staff in (1) providing the sample design and selection, (2) planning and conducting the pre-test

and actual telephone survey, and (3) providing the data reduction, processing and analysis.

Population

The Sampling Section of SRL was responsible for the design and selection of the sample used in this pilot study. This telephone survey of the population of full-time employed persons, age 25-65, was conducted in two locations: Chicago City and Peoria County. The limited number of locations was due to budgetary reasons. Under this constraint, it was felt that data from a large metropolitan area and a small SMSA (including the rural portion) would give some sense of variance in the population as well as allow for some interesting comparisons. The objective was to complete 100 interviews at each location.

The sampling frame in each location was current telephone directories. And in each location a systematic sample of phone numbers was selected.

In the Chicago sample, a random digit dialing procedure was used in order to eliminate the large bias (approximately 50%) due to unlisted phone numbers. In this procedure, the last two digits are dropped from each phone number (selected from the phone book) and replaced by a random pair of digits.

In Peoria county, where the bias due to unlisted numbers is negligible, no random digit dialing was used.

The disposition of the sample, by location is as follows:

| | Peoria County | | Chicago City | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total Sample | 252 | | 331 | |
| Ineligible | 123 | | 193 | |
| population definition | 86 | | 90 | |
| disconnects | 30 | | 61 | |
| business | 3 | | 31 | |
| other | 4 | | 11 | |
| Eligible | 129 | 100% | 138 | 100% |
| interviews | 102 | 79 | 101 | 73 |
| refusals | 23 | 18 | 25 | 18 |
| noncontacts[1] | 4 | 3 | 12 | 9 |

If an overall cooperation rate is defined as $\frac{\text{cooperating households}}{\text{all sample households}}$, then cooperation for Peoria County is $\frac{192}{219} = 88\%$ and for Chicago City $\frac{202}{239} = 85\%$. Similarly, eligibility rate = $\frac{\text{eligible households}}{\text{all sample households}}$. For Peoria, eligibility was 59% and for Chicago, 58%.

Instrumentation

The telephone survey instrument was developed through a variety of procedures. First, the identification of characteristics of mid-life career changers and re-entry persons and reported barriers to change began with a number of literature searches and subsequent reviews of literature. Consultations were made with a number of faculty members at the University of Illinois involved in vocational development and adult education. In addition, there was on-going consultation with the Adult Vocational Education Project staff.

---

[1] Because of the very small number of these, both eligibles and "eligibility unknowns" are combined.

An initial draft of the survey instrument was prepared and critically analyzed by SRL survey research specialists, as well as by members of the project staff. The survey instrument was revised a number of times and then reviewed by the heads of the SRL Field Operations Section and Data Analysis Section.

Two training sessions were held with the SRL interviewers who were assigned to the Pretest of the instrument and with their coordinator. Suggestions for revisions from these trained telephone interviewers were incorporated into the pretest instrument. Fourteen pretest interviews were conducted at the SRL telephone center in Urbana using the same sample design with respondents from Champaign County. Following the pretest interviews, a debriefing session was held with the interviewers so as to react to their experiences with the instrument.

The finalized survey instrument consists of five open-ended questions identifying the respondent's present job title, duties, business or industry affiliation, hours worked per week, and year job started.

The second major part of the survey instrument consists of closed and open-ended questions relating to the career history of the respondent since the time s/he left school until the time s/he obtained the present position identified in part one.

The third major part of the survey instrument consists of closed and open-ended questions relating to why each career change was made; whether economic, health, family, employment, attitudinal or other problems were experienced while in the process of changing or after changing, and how such problems were handled.

The fourth major part of the survey instrument consists of closed- and open-ended questions related to whether or not respondents had ever seriously thought about changing to a very different kind of work, when, and the factors (barriers) which influenced their subsequent decisions.

The final part of the survey instrument provides data describing the respondents. The demographic data collected on each respondent includes:

1. age
2. sex
3. racial or ethnic background
4. marital status
5. number of people in household and employment status
6. highest year of schooling completed
7. total personal income before taxes in 1978
8. total household income before taxes in 1978

Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected via a telephone survey during a three-week period, April 16, 1979 through May 4, 1979. The data collection was conducted by the SRL Field Operations Section. The five interviewers were regular SRL field staff interviewers specialized in telephone interviewing. The three interviewers previously assigned to the pretest survey were included in this group.

Training sessions on the finalized survey instrument were conducted by the investigator with the SRL Field Operations Coordinator for the five interviewers during the week preceding the data collection period. All interviews were conducted from the SRL telephone center

in Urbana where monitoring by both the investigator and the SRL Field Operations Coordinator was easily performed.

Data collected via the telephone survey instruments were coded independently by the investigator and by members of the Adult Vocational Education Project. The SRL Data Analysis Section was responsible for the keypunching. The data were hand cleaned by the investigator since funds did not permit machine cleaning.

The SRL Data Analysis Section also conducted the computer analysis of the survey data using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 7.

## Results

Data collected in this pilot study through a telephone sample of full-time employed persons, age 25-65, which was conducted in Chicago City and Peoria County, are presented here. The results of this pilot study are presented as a beginning look at the phenomena of mid-life career change and re-entry into the paid labor market after some extended absence among some residents of Illinois. The sampling error tolerance for a sample size of 200 is approximately ± 3.1 at the 95% confidence level.

Characteristics of the respondents are followed by data on general work history information, general career change information, and composite work history and career change information. The final section includes information on mid-life career changers and re-entry persons.

## Sample Characteristics

The respondents were screened by the interviewers at the beginning of the telephone interviews to validate that they were between the

ages of 25 and 65 and currently working for pay full-time. Tables 1 through 7 show the basic characteristics of the sample.

The age of the respondents is summarized in Table 1. Respondents in the 25-29 year category constituted the highest percentage (21.0%) of the total sample while respondents in the 60-65 year category constituted the lowest percentage (4.5%) of the total sample.

Table 1

FREQUENCY OF AGE CATEGORIES FOR RESPONDENT SAMPLE

| Age | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency |
|---|---|---|
| 25 - 29 | 42 | 21.0 |
| 30 - 34 | 32 | 16.0 |
| 35 - 39 | 31 | 15.5 |
| 40 - 44 | 17 | 8.5 |
| 45 - 49 | 20 | 10.0 |
| 50 - 54 | 23 | 11.5 |
| 55 - 59 | 26 | 13.0 |
| 60 - 65 | 9 | 4.5 |
| No Answer | 3 | Missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 2 shows the number of males and females in the total sample. A fairly even distribution by sex was found with males outnumbering females by only just over nine percent (9.4%) of the total sample.

Table 2

FREQUENCY OF MALE AND FEMALE RESPONDENTS

| Sex | Number of Pespondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Males | 111 | 54.7 |
| Females | 92 | 45.3 |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

The frequency of the racial or ethnic categories of the respondents is summarized in Table 3. Almost three-fourths (74.8%) of the respondents were white and slightly more than one-fifth (21.3%) of the respondents were black.

Table 3

FREQUENCY OF RACIAL OR ETHNIC CATEGORIES FOR RESPONDENT SAMPLE

| Racial or Ethnic Category | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| White | 151 | 74.8 |
| Black | 43 | 21.3 |
| Latino, Mexican, Puerto Rican | 2 | 1.0 |
| Asian, Oriental | 2 | 1.0 |
| Other | 4 | 2.0 |
| No Answer | 1 | Missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

The highest year of schooling the respondents completed is presented in Table 4. Just under seven percent (6.9%) have finished graduate school or hold a professional degree. Almost another six percent (5.9%) have had some graduate school. Slightly more than another fifteen percent (15.8%) have finished four years of college and almost another thirteen percent (12.9%) have completed some college. Almost another two-fifths (39.6%) of the respondents have completed a full twelve years of school while almost one-fifth (18.9%) have completed less than twelve years of school.

Table 4

FREQUENCY OF EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND CATEGORIES FOR RESPONDENT SAMPLE

| Highest Year of Schooling Completed | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| 6th grade | 1 | .5 |
| 7th grade | 3 | 1.5 |
| 8th grade | 9 | 4.5 |
| 9th grade | 6 | 3.0 |
| 10th grade | 13 | 6.4 |
| 11th grade | 6 | 3.0 |
| 12th grade | 80 | 39.6 |
| 1 year college | 8 | 4.0 |
| 2 years college | 12 | 5.9 |
| 3 years college | 6 | 3.0 |
| 4 years college | 32 | 15.8 |
| Some graduate school | 12 | 5.9 |
| Graduate/Professional degree | 14 | 6.9 |
| No answer | 1 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 5 presents the frequency of marital status categories for the respondent sample. Almost seventy percent (69.3%) of the respondents are married; just over sixteen percent (16.3%) are separated, widowed, or divorced, and just over fourteen percent (14.4%) have never been married.

Table 5

FREQUENCY OF MARITAL STATUS CATEGORIES FOR RESPONDENT SAMPLE

| Marital Status Category | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Married | 140 | 69.3 |
| Separated, widowed, or divorced | 33 | 16.3 |
| Never married | 29 | 14.4 |
| No answer | 1 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 6 summarizes the total personal income of respondents before taxes in 1978 and Table 7 summarizes their total household income before taxes in 1978. Better than fifteen percent (15.3%) of the respondents report total personal incomes less than $7,500 and just under seven percent (6.9%) report total household incomes in this range. One-fourth (25.7%) of the respondents report total personal incomes in

the $20,001-$30,000 range while slightly more than thirty percent (30.5%) of the respondents report total household incomes in this range. Almost ten percent (9.8%) report total personal incomes in the over $30,000 range while better than double that number (22.4%) report total household income in this range.

Table 6

FREQUENCY OF TOTAL PERSONAL INCOME CATEGORIES FOR RESPONDENT SAMPLE

| Total Personal Income Before Taxes in 1970 | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| less than $5,000 | 11 | 6.0 |
| $5,000 - $7,500 | 17 | 9.3 |
| $7,501 - $10,000 | 21 | 11.5 |
| $10,001 - $15,000 | 39 | 21.3 |
| $15,001 - $20,000 | 30 | 16.4 |
| $20,001 - $30,000 | 47 | 25.7 |
| Over $30,000 | 18 | 9.8 |
| Don't know | 3 | missing |
| Refused | 17 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 7

FPEQUENCY OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME CATEGORIES
FOR RESPONDENT SAMPLE

| Total Household Income Before Taxes in 1978 | Number of Pespondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| less than $5,000 | 4 | 2.3 |
| $5,000 - $7,500 | 8 | 4.6 |
| $7,501 - $10,000 | 8 | 4.6 |
| $10,001 - $15,000 | 32 | 18.4 |
| $15,001 - $20,000 | 30 | 17.2 |
| $20,001 - $30,000 | 53 | 30.5 |
| Over $30,000 | 39 | 22.4 |
| Don't know | 7 | missing |
| Refused | 22 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

General Work History Information

Tables 8 through 14 summarize the data on the general work history information of the respondents. The present full-time paid occupational classifications for the respondent sample are presented in Table 8. Just under half (46.8%) of the respondents are presently employed in two categories: clerical workers (20.4%) and craftsmen (26.4%). Slightly more than another thirty percent (31.3%) of the respondents are employed in two other categories: professional and technical workers (19.4%) and managers and administrators (11.9%). The smallest number of respondents (2.5%) is found in the category of laborers.

Table 9 shows the year in which respondents started their present full-time paid occupation. Just under half (47.7%) of the total sample started their present job in 1972 or after. Indeed, 15.3% of this group has been in their present position less than a year and a half. Just over one-fourth (25.6%) of the total sample started their present job in the time frame of 1960-1968.

Just under seventy percent (69.5%) of the respondents indicated that they have held some other full-time job other than their current one and almost seventy percent (68.6%) indicated that the work on the other job(s) had been very different from the work they are currently doing. Slightly more than half (52.0%) of this group indicated that they have had <u>one</u> other different kind of job; just under a fourth (23.5%) of this group indicated that they have had <u>two</u> other different kinds of jobs; and almost another two-fifths (17.3%) indicated that they have had <u>three</u> other different kinds of jobs. Tables 10, 11 and 12 summarize this information.

Table 8

PRESENT FULL-TIME PAID OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATIONS FOR RESPONDENT SAMPLE

| Paid, Full-Time Occupational Classifications | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Professional and Technical Workers | 39 | 19.4 |
| Managers and Administrators | 24 | 11.9 |
| Salesworkers | 12 | 6.0 |
| Clerical Workers | 41 | 20.04 |
| Craftsmen | 53 | 26.4 |
| Transport Equipment Operators | 13 | 6.5 |
| Laborers | 5 | 2.5 |
| Service Workers | 14 | 7.0 |
| No Answer | 2 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 9

YEAR IN WHICH RESPONDENTS STARTED THEIR PRESENT FULL-TIME PAID OCCUPATION

| Year Started | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| 1936 - 38 | 1 | .5 |
| 1939 - 41 | 3 | 1.5 |
| 1942 - 44 | 0 | 0 |
| 1945 - 47 | 5 | 2.5 |
| 1948 - 50 | 4 | 2.0 |
| 1951 - 53 | 5 | 2.5 |
| 1954 - 56 | 8 | 4.0 |
| 1957 - 59 | 10 | 5.0 |
| 1960 - 62 | 5 | 2.5 |
| 1963 - 65 | 21 | 10.3 |
| 1966 - 68 | 26 | 12.8 |
| 1969 - 71 | 18 | 8.8 |
| 1972 - 74 | 28 | 13.7 |
| 1975 - 77 | 38 | 18.7 |
| 1978 - present | 31 | 15.3 |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 10

FREQUENCY OF RESPONDS TO THE QUESTION:
"SINCE YOU WERE 18, HAVE YOU EVER HELD A FULL-TIME JOB OTHER THAN THE ONE YOU HAVE NOW?

| Responses | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 141 | 69.5 |
| No | 62 | 30.5 |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 11

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION:
"WAS THE WORK THAT YOU DID ON ANY OTHER JOB VERY DIFFICULT FROM WHAT YOU'RE DOING NOW?"

| Response | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 96 | 68.6 |
| No | 44 | 31.4 |
| Not applicable | 63 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 12

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION:
"OTHER THAN THE JOB YOU HAVE NOW, HOW MANY
DIFFERENT KINDS OF JOBS HAVE YOU HELD?"

| Response | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| No others | 1 | 1.0 |
| One other | 51 | 52.0 |
| Two others | 23 | 23.5 |
| Three others | 17 | 17.3 |
| Four others | 3 | 3.1 |
| Five others | 1 | 1.0 |
| Six others | 1 | 1.0 |
| Seven others | 1 | 1.0 |
| Not applicable | 104 | missing |
| No answer | 1 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 13 shows that just over sixty percent (60.1%) of the total sample has been out of the full-time labor force for at least a year at some period in their lives since they were 18 years old.

Table 13

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION:
"HAVE THERE BEEN ANY TIMES, SINCE YOU WERE 18, WHEN YOU WERE OUT OF THE FULL-TIME LABOR FORCE FOR AT LEAST A YEAR, SUCH AS WHEN YOU WERE IN THE ARMED SERVICES OF PEACE CORPS, OR WHEN YOU WERE A HOMEMAKER OR STUDENT?"

| Response | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 122 | 60.1 |
| No | 81 | 39.9 |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 14 shows that almost the same percentage of men (59.5) as women (60.9%) indicate that they have been out of the full-time labor force for at least a year at some period in their lives since they were 18 years old.

Table 14

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES BY SEX TO THE QUESTION: "HAVE THERE BEEN ANY TIMES, SINCE YOU WERE 18, WHEN YOU WERE OUT OF THE FULL-TIME LABOR FORCE FOR AT LEAST A YEAR, SUCH AS WHEN YOU WERE IN THE ARMED SERVICES OR PEACE CORPS, OR WHEN YOU WERE A HOMEMAKER OR STUDENT?"

| Sex | "YES" Responses | | "NO" Responses | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Male | 66 | 59.5 | 45 | 40.5 |
| Female | 56 | 60.9 | 36 | 39.1 |

General Career Change Information

Tables 15 through 20 summarize the data on the general career change information of the respondents. Table 15 summarizes the frequency of responses to the question: "In thinking back over your work history, have you ever seriously thought about changing to a very different type of work?". Just under one-third (32.1%) of the respondents answered this question affirmatively.

The time period in which respondents last thought seriously about changing to a very different type of work is summarized in Table 16. Better than ninety percent (90.7%) of the respondents who have thought seriously about this kind of change have done so within the time period of 1970 to the present while almost a fourth (24.5%) of them indicate that they are presently thinking of such a change.

Table 15

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION:
"IN THINKING BACK OVER YOUR WORK HISTORY, HAVE YOU EVER SERIOUSLY THOUGHT ABOUT CHANGING TO A VERY DIFFERENT TYPE OF WORK?"

| Response | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 54 | 32.1 |
| No | 114 | 57.9 |
| No response | 35 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 16

TIME IN WHICH RESPONDENTS LAST THOUGHT SERIOUSLY ABOUT CHANGING TO A VERY DIFFERENT TYPE OF WORK

| Time Period | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| 1940 - 49 | 1 | 1.9 |
| 1950 - 59 | 2 | 3.7 |
| 1960 - 69 | 2 | 3.8 |
| 1970 - 79 | 37 | 68.6 |
| Presently thinking of | 12 | .2 |
| Not applicable | 149 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Of the group of respondents who have thought (or are thinking) of such a change, better than two-thirds (64.8%) indicated change to some specific job. The specific jobs were in the same two categories for over three-fifths (63.6%) of these respondents: professional and technical workers (39.4%) and managers and administrators (24.2%). This information is summarized in Tables 17 and 18.

Table 17

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION:
"WHEN YOU THOUGHT OF CHANGING, DID YOU HAVE SOMETHING SPECIFIC IN MIND?"

| Response | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 35 | 64.8 |
| No | 19 | 35.2 |
| Not applicable | 149 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 18

FREQUENCY OF CLASSIFICATIONS OF TYPE OF WORK CONSIDERED BY THOSE THINKING OF MAKING A SPECIFIC CHANGE

| Occupational Classification | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Professional and Technical workers | 13 | 39.4 |
| Managers and Administrators | 8 | 24.2 |
| Salesworkers | 2 | 6.1 |
| Clerical Workers | 1 | 3.0 |
| Craftsmen | 3 | 9.1 |
| Service Workers | 5 | 15.2 |
| Student | 1 | 3.0 |
| No Answer | 2 | missing |
| Not applicable | 168 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Tables 19 and 20 show the responses which are related to the basic question of identifying factors which influenced (are influencing) respondents in their career change decisions. Table 19 shows the frequency of responses to the open-ended question: "What factors influenced (are influencing) you in deciding about the change?" The desire for more meaningful or interesting work was the most commonly stated factor by respondents (14.9%) while the dislike of working conditions and the desire to be one's own boss were the next most frequently stated factors by respondents (10.6% and 10.6%).

Table 20 shows the frequency of responses to the closed question: "Did any of the following factors influence your decision not to make this change?" The two most critical factors were (1) the need for retraining or more education and (2) economic reasons. Just over one-fourth (26.2%) responded affirmatively to the former and one-fourth (25.0%) to the latter.

Table 19

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION:
"WHAT FACTORS INFLUENCED (ARE INFLUENCING) YOU IN DECIDING ABOUT THE CHANGE?"

| Influencing Factor | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Freq. (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Lack of $ to pursue additional necessary education | 3 | 6.4 |
| Need for more education or training | 3 | 6.4 |
| Desire for better benefits and more stability | 2 | 4.3 |
| Desire to make more $; to live better | 4 | 8.5 |
| Dislike of working conditions | 5 | 10.6 |
| Desire to be own boss | 5 | 10.6 |
| Didn't want to take risk | 3 | 6.4 |
| Poor job market in field | 3 | 6.4 |
| Didn't want to lose pension | 1 | 2.1 |
| Needed guidance in how to change | 1 | 2.1 |
| Advice of friends | 1 | 2.1 |
| Results of professional counseling and testing | 1 | 2.1 |
| Desire for more meaningful/interesting work | 7 | 14.9 |
| Desire for simpler/less hectic work | 2 | 4.3 |
| Other | 6 | 12.8 |
| No Answer | 5 | missing |
| Not Applicable | 151 | missing |
| TOTAL | 203 | 100.0 |

Table 20

FREQUENCY RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION:
"DID ANY OF THE FOLLOWING FACTORS INFLUENCE
YOUR DECISION NOT TO MAKE THIS CHANGE?"

| Factors | "YES" Responses | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) | "NO" Responses | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) | NC | Re | A.F. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Economic reasons | 42 | 25.0 | 126 | 75.0 | 35 | missing | |
| Poor health | 5 | 3.0 | 163 | 97.0 | 35 | missing | |
| Age | 18 | 10.7 | 150 | 89.3 | 35 | missing | |
| Risk of the change | 22 | 13.1 | 146 | 86.9 | 35 | missing | |
| Not knowing how to change | 15 | 8.9 | 153 | 91.1 | 35 | missing | |
| Lack of encouragement | 6 | 3.6 | 162 | 96.4 | 35 | missing | |
| Need for retraining or more education | 44 | 26.2 | 124 | 61.1 | 35 | missing | |

Composite Work History and Career Change Information

Tables 21 through 30 summarize the data on the composite work history and career change information of the respondents. Table 21 summarizes all of the career positions held by the respondents to date. A total of 624 career positions were cited by the respondents in the 175 valid cases tabulated.

Table 21

COMPOSITE OF ALL CAREER POSITIONS HELD BY RESPONDENTS TO DATE

| Position | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| Professional & Technical Workers | 51 | 8.2 | 29.1 |
| Managers & Administrators | 34 | 5.4 | 19.4 |
| Salesworkers | 24 | 3.8 | 13.7 |
| Clerical Workers | 89 | 14.3 | 50.9 |
| Craftsmen | 96 | 15.4 | 54.9 |
| Transportation Equipment Operators | 25 | 4.0 | 14.3 |
| Laborers | 10 | 1.6 | 5.7 |
| Farmers | 2 | .3 | 1.1 |
| Farm Laborers & Foremen | 4 | .6 | 2.3 |
| Service Workers | 28 | 4.5 | 16.0 |
| Private Household Workers | 2 | .3 | 1.1 |
| Students | 170 | 27.2 | 97.1 |
| Homemakers | 48 | 7.7 | 27.4 |
| Unemployed | 2 | .3 | 1.1 |
| Armed Services | 39 | 6.3 | 22.3 |
| *Total Responses | 624 | 100.0 | 356.3 |

*n = 203

missing cases = 28

valid cases = 175

Table 22 shows a total of 491 "valid" career positions after the 624 positions had been verified with the occupational classification codes to determine that a change in occupational classification and not just in job location had been made.

Table 23 shows that almost without exception (98.2%), the career positions held by the respondents have been traditionally sex-appropriate.

Table 22

CHANGE VALIDATION OF COMPOSITE OF ALL CAREER POSITIONS HELD BY RESPONDENTS TO DATE

| Valid Career Position Change | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | 491 | 79.1 | 280.6 |
| No | 130 | 20.9 | 74.3 |
| TOTAL RESPONSES* | 621 | 100.0 | 354.9 |

* n = 203

missing cases = 28

valid cases = 175

Table 23

TRADITIONAL SEX-APPROPRIATNESS OF COMPOSITE OF CAREER POSITIONS

| Traditionally Sex-Appropriate | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | 616 | 98.2 | 352.0 |
| No | 11 | 1.8 | 6.3 |
| TOTAL RESPONSES* | 627 | 100.0 | 358.3 |

* n = 203

missing cases = 28

valid cases = 175

Table 24 summarizes the data on career change type categories. Just under sixty percent (59.1%) of the career changes were classified as Type A changes; just over thirty-six percent (36.1%) were classified as Type B changes; and less than five percent (4.8%) were classified as Type C changes.

Table 24

COMPOSITE OF CAREER CHANGE TYPE CATEGORIES

| Career Change Type | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| A | 211 | 59.1 | 142.6 |
| B | 129 | 36.1 | 87.2 |
| C | 17 | 4.8 | 11.5 |
| TOTAL RESPONSES* | 357 | 100.0 | 241.2 |

* n = 203

missing cases = 55

valid cases = 148

A composite of the problems encountered by respondents while changing career positions is presented in Table 25. Economic problems were the most frequently cited problem, followed by attitudinal problems and family problems.

Table 25

COMPOSITE OF PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY RESPONDENTS WHILE CHANGING CAREER POSITIONS

| Problems | Count YES | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| * Economic problems | 78 | 16 | 39.0 |
| Health problems | 21 | 4.3 | 10.4 |
| Family problems | 28 | 5.7 | 13.9 |
| Employment problems | 26 | 5.3 | 12.9 |
| Attitude problem | 31 | 6.4 | 15.4 |
| **Other Problem | 12 | 2.5 | 6.0 |

n = 203

* missing cases = 3

** missing cases = 2

Tables 26 through 30 summarize the data on the solutions used by respondents to handle the various problems: economic problems, health problems, family problems, employment problems and attitudinal problems respectively.

Table 26

SOLUTIONS USED TO HANDLE ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

| Solution | Count | PCT of Responses | *PCT of Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tightened belts; budgeted | 32 | 45.1 | 55.2 |
| Lived at home; supported by aprents | 4 | 5.6 | 6.9 |
| Wife went to work | 1 | 1.4 | 1.7 |
| Took from savings | 1 | 1.4 | 1.7 |
| Took out a loan | 2 | 2.8 | 3.4 |
| Went on public assistance | 2 | 2.8 | 3.4 |
| Took part-time job | 7 | 9.9 | 12.1 |
| Took different job | 22 | 31.0 | 37.9 |
| **TOTAL RESPONSES | 71 | 100.0 | 122.3 |

* Valid cases = 58

** Eligible from Table = 78; No response = 7

No response = 7

Table 27

SOLUTIONS USED TO HANDLE HEALTH PROBLEMS

| Solution | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of * Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| Obtained medical assistance | 9 | 42.9 | 50.0 |
| Ignored the problem | 4 | 19.0 | 22.2 |
| Reduced number of hours worked | 4 | 19.0 | 22.2 |
| Miscellaneous others | 4 | 19.0 | 22.2 |
| TOTAL RESPONSES | 21 | 100.0 | 116.6 |

* Valid Cases = 18

Table 28

SOLUTIONS USED TO HANDLE FAMILY PROBLEMS

| Solution | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| Obtained a divorce | 4 | 16.7 | 22.2 |
| Obtained professional counseling | 2 | 8.3 | 11.1 |
| Obtained custody of children | 1 | 4.2 | 5.6 |
| Took a job | 4 | 16.7 | 22.2 |
| Miscellaneous others | 13 | 54.1 | 72.3 |
| ** TOTAL RESPONSES | 24 | 100.0 | 133.3 |

* Valid cases = 18

** Eligible from table = 28; No response = 4

Table 29

SOLUTIONS USED TO HANDLE EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS

| Solution | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Engaged in extensive job search | 10 | 43.5 | 58.8 |
| Took job out of field after extensive job search | 4 | 17.4 | 23.5 |
| Took part-time job | 1 | 4.3 | 5.9 |
| Received assistance from parents | 1 | 4.3 | 5.9 |
| Received public assistance | 2 | 8.7 | 11.8 |
| Miscellaneous others | 5 | 21.7 | 29.4 |
| **TOTAL RESPONSES | 23 | 100.0 | 135.3 |

* Valid cases = 17

** Eligible from table = 26; No response = 3

Table 30

SOLUTIONS USED TO HANDLE ATTITUDINAL PROBLEMS

| Solution | Count | PCT of Responses | PCT of Cases* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Did nothing and hoped for the best | 6 | 20.7 | 26.1 |
| Worked at adjusting and made the best of it | 12 | 41.4 | 52.2 |
| Sought professional counseling | 2 | 6.9 | 8.7 |
| Sought doctor's advice | 1 | 3.4 | 4.3 |
| Turned to family; significant others | 3 | 10.3 | 13.0 |
| Miscellaneous others | 5 | 17.2 | 21.7 |
| ** TOTAL RESPONSES | 29 | 100.0 | 126.1 |

* Valid cases = 23

** Eligible from Table = 31; No response = 2

Mid-Life Career Changers and Re-Entry Persons

Tables 31 through 43 summarize the data on mid-life career changers and re-entry persons. Table 31 shows that just under forty percent (39.1%) of the respondents in the total sample in the age category of 30 to 50 can be classified as mid-life career changers (Respondents ages 30 to 50 who have had at least five years in their last career position before making a valid change to a new position).

Table 31

FREQUENCY OF MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS (RESPONDENTS AGES 30 TO 50 WHO HAD AT LEAST 5 YEARS IN LAST CAREER POSITION BEFORE MAKING A VALID CHANGE TO A NEW POSITION) AMONG RESPONDENTS AGES 30 TO 50.

| Mid-Life Career Changer | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| YES | 41 | 39.04 |
| NO | 64 | 60.96 |
| TOTAL | 105 | 100.0 |

The number of male and female mid-life career changers is shown in Table 32. The division by sex is almost exactly even. Fifty-one percent are male and forty-nine percent are female.

Table 32

FREQUENCY OF MALE AND FEMALE MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS

| Sex | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| MALE | 21 | 51.0 |
| FEMALE | 20 | 49.0 |
| TOTAL | 41 | 100.0 |

n = 41

The highest year of schooling the mid-life career change respondents have completed is presented in Table 33. Eighty-five percent (85.0%) have completed at least a full 12 years of school, twenty-nine percent (29.0%) have finished at least four years of college, and seven percent (7.0%) have completed graduate school or hold a professional degree.

Table 33

FREQUENCY OF EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND CATEGORIES FOR MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS

| Highest Year of Schooling Completed | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| 6th grade | 0 | 0.0 |
| 7th grade | 0 | 0.0 |
| 8th grade | 1 | 2.0 |
| 9th grade | 0 | 0.0 |
| 10th grade | 3 | 7.0 |
| 11th grade | 2 | 5.0 |
| 12th grade | 19 | 46.0 |
| 1 year college | 2 | 5.0 |
| 2 years college | 0 | 0.0 |
| 3 years college | 2 | 5.0 |
| 4 years college | 8 | 20.0 |
| Some graduate school | 1 | 2.0 |
| Graduate/Professional degree | 3 | 7.0 |
| TOTAL | 41 | 100.0 |

n = 41

The frequency of the racial or ethnic categories of the mid-life career change respondents is summarized in Table 34. Just over two-thirds (68%) of the mid-life career changers are white and just over a fourth (27%) are black.

Table 34

FREQUENCY OF RACIAL OR ETHNIC CATEGORIES FOR MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS

| Racial or Ethnic Category | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| White | 28 | 68 |
| Black | 11 | 27 |
| Latino, Mexican, Puerto Rican | 1 | 2 |
| Asian, Oriental | 1 | 2 |
| TOTAL | 41 | 99 |

n = 41

Table 35 summarizes the total personal income of mid-life career change respondents before taxes in 1978 and Table 36 summarizes their total household income before taxes in 1978. While just under one-third

of the mid-life career change respondents report total personal income of less than $10.001, only five percent indicate total household income in this range. Twenty percent report total personal income in the $10,001 - 15,000 range but only fifteen percent indicate total household income in this range. Slightly less than one-third (29%) of the mid-life career change respondents report total income in excess of $20,001 with over half (54%) indicating total household income in this range.

Table 35

FREQUENCY OF TOTAL PERSONAL INCOME CATEGORIES FOR MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS

| Total Personal Income Before Taxes in 1978 | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Less than $5,000 | 2 | 5 |
| $5,000 - $7,500 | 5 | 12 |
| $7,501 - $10,000 | 6 | 15 |
| $10,001 - $15,000 | 8 | 20 |
| $15,001 - $20,000 | 5 | 12 |
| $20,001 - $30,000 | 7 | 17 |
| Over $30,000 | 5 | 12 |
| Don't Know/Refused | 3 | 7 |
| Total | 41 | 100.0 |

n = 41

Table 36

FREQUENCY OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME CATEGORIES
FOR MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS

| Total Household Income Before Taxes in 1978 | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Less than $5,000 | 0 | 0 |
| $5,001 - $7,500 | 0 | 0 |
| $7,501 - $10,000 | 2 | 5 |
| $10,001 - $15,000 | 6 | 15 |
| $15,001 - $20,000 | 4 | 10 |
| $20,001 - $30,000 | 11 | 27 |
| Over $30,000 | 11 | 27 |
| Don't know/Refused | 7 | 17 |
| TOTAL | 41 | 101.0 |

n = 41

The frequency of mid-life career change respondents by sampling location is shown in Table 37. An almost equal distribution by location was found with fifty-one percent of the mid-life career change respondents from Chicago City and forty-nine percent from Peoria County.

Table 37

FREQUENCY OF MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS BY SAMPLING LOCATION

| Sampling Location | Number of Respondents | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|
| Chicago City | 21 | 51.0 |
| Peoria County | 20 | 49.0 |
| TOTAL | 41 | 100.0 |

n = 41

Table 38 shows that almost without exception (95.1%) the career positions held by mid-life career change respondents have been traditionally sex-appropriate.

Table 38

TRADITIONAL SEX-APPROPRIATENESS OF MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE POSITIONS

| Sex | Traditionally Sex-Appropriate | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) | Not Traditionally Sex-Appropriate | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MALE | 20 | 95.2 | 1 | 4.8 |
| FEMALE | 19 | 95.0 | 1 | 5.0 |
| MALE & FEMALE | 39 | 95.1 | 2 | 4.9 |

n = 41

Table 39 shows the frequency of career change type categories for mid-life career change respondents by sex. Greater percentages of male mid-life career changers than female mid-life career changers are classified as Change Type B (30% male/15% female) and Change Type C (10% male/ 7.5% female). On the other hand, greater percentages of female mid-life career changers than male mid-life career changers are classified as Change Type A (22.5% female/15% male).

Table 39

FREQUENCY OF CAREER CHANGE TYPE CATEGORIES
FOR MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE RESPONDENTS BY SEX

| Sex | Change Type A | | Change Type B | | Change Type C | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Count | Adj. Freq. (PCT) | Count | Adj. Freq. (PCT) | Count | Adj. Freq. (PCT) |
| Male | 6 | 15.0 | 12 | 30.0 | 4 | 10.0 |
| Female | 9 | 22.5 | 6 | 15.0 | 3 | 7.5 |
| Males & Females | 15 | 37.5 | 18 | 45.0 | 7 | 17.0 |

n = 41

Slightly greater than one-fifth (21.95) of the mid-life career changers indicate that they have had some problems while changing career positions. Table 40 presents a composite of the problems encountered by respondents while making mid-life career changes. Again there is almost an even split by sex of respondents who have had problems (5 females/4 males). Economic problems are the most commonly cited problems, followed by family and "other".

Table 40

COMPOSITE OF PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY RESPONDENTS WHILE MAKING MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGES

| Problems | Males | Females | Total Count |
|---|---|---|---|
| Economic Problems | 0 | 3 | 3 |
| Health Problems | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Family Problems | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| Employment Problems | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Attitude Problems | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Other Problems | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| TOTAL | 4 | 5 | 9 |

n = 41

Table 41 shows the frequency of re-entry persons within the mid-life career changer group. Just over a third (36.6%) of the mid-life career change respondents may also be classified as re-entry persons. Thirteen (31.7%) have been full-time homemakers for at least five years before changing to another career position and two (4.9%) have been in the armed services before changing to another career position. The remaining two-thirds (63.4%) have been employed in a different full-time paid job classification before changing to another career position.

Table 41

FREQUENCY OF RE-ENTRY WITHIN MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGER GROUP

| Career Classification Prior to Change | Type A Changer | Type B Changer | Type C Changer | Other | Total | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Full-time Homemaker | 9 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 13 | 31.7 |
| Armed Services | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 4.9 |
| Full-Time Paid Employment | 5 | 14 | 7 | 0 | 26 | 63.4 |
| Total | 15 | 18 | 7 | 1 | 41 | 100.0 |

n = 41

Table 42 shows the data on the composite entry and re-entry patterns of female homemakers. There are 92 female respondents in the total sample. Almost one-half of them (47.8%) have entered or re-

entered the full-time paid labor force at some period after they had been full-time homemakers. Just over one-third (36.4%) went from being students to being full-time homemakers to holding full-time paid jobs in the labor force. The approximate other two-thirds (63.6%) held full-time paid jobs in the labor force prior to becoming full-time homemakers. Of this latter group, a little over one-fourth (28.6%) returned to the same job classification on re-entering the full-time paid labor force whereas almost three-fourths (71.4%) took jobs in a different classification on re-entry.

Table 42

COMPOSITE OF ENTRY AND RE-ENTRY PATTERNS OF HOMEMAKERS

| Position Before Becoming Full-Time Homemaker | Count | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) | Position after Being A Full-Time Homemaker | Count | Adjusted Frequency (PCT) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student | 16 | 36.4 | Initial full-time paid job | 16 | 36 |
| Full-time Paid Job | 28 | 63.6 | Same job classification | 8 | 18 |
| TOTAL* | 44 | 100.0 | | 44 | 100.0 |

* Number of females in sample = 92

Table 43 shows the data on the composite entry and re-entry patterns of males with military service backgrounds. There are 111 male respondents in the total sample. Just over one-third of them have entered or re-entered the full-time paid labor force at some period after they had been in the armed services. Just under one-half (46.1%) went from being students to being in the armed services to holding a full-time paid job in the labor force. The other half (53.9%) held full-time paid jobs prior to being in the armed services. Of this latter group, just over a half (52.4%) returned to the same job classification on re-entering the full-time paid labor force and just under half (47.6%) took jobs in a different classification upon re-entry.

Table 43

COMPOSITE OF ENTRY AND RE-ENTRY PATTERNS OF MALES WITH MILITARY SERVICE BACKGROUND

| Position before Serving in Armed Services | Count | Adj. Freq. (PCT) | Position After Serving in Armed Services | Count | Adj. Freq. (PCT) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student | 18 | | Initial full-time paid job | 18 | |
| Full-time paid job | 21 | | Same job classification | 10 | |
| TOTAL* | 39 | | | 39 | |

* number of males in sample = 111

Summary, Conclusions and Implications

The focus of this pilot study was on a large and diverse category of Illinois adults, identified as mid-life career changers, who might benefit from vocational education. While it has been repeatedly suggested that vocational education must play an expanded role in the broad area of adult education, little has been written about the specifics of this role.

The expansion of the role(s) which vocational education might play in the area of mid-life career change depends heavily on an increased base of knowledge in this area. The aim of this pilot study was to begin to answer the following research questions:

1. How prevalent is the phenomenon of mid-life career change among residents of Illinois?
2. What are the most common barriers identified by mid-life career changers?
3. What are the most common ways in which mid-life career changers respond to these barriers?
4. What are the major characteristics of mid-life career changers?
5. How prevalent is the phenomenon of re-entry into the paid labor market after some extended absence among residents of Illinois?
6. What are the most common barriers identified by re-entry persons?
7. What are the most common ways in which re-entry persons respond to these barriers?
8. What are the major characteristics of re-entry persons?
9. What is the current status of adult vocational education in Illinois for mid-life career changers?

The data were collected through a telephone sample of full-time employed persons, age 25-65, in Chicago City and Peoria County. The Survey Research Laboratory (SRL), an all-campus research and service unit of the University of Illinois, provided consultation throughout the

pilot study and the following technical services: (1) provided the sample design and selection; (2) planned and conducted the pre-test and actual telephone survey; and (3) provided the data reduction, processing and analysis.

The researcher developed telephone survey instrument consisted of a screener form and five major parts: (1) Present Job Information; (2) Career History; (3) Career Change Type and Related Problems; (4) Reflections on Career Change and Change Barriers; and (5) Demographic Data.

Two hundred and three surveys were completed for analysis. The SRL Data Analysis Section conducted the computer analysis of the survey data using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 7.

Summary of the Findings

Characteristics of the Sample. Of the 203 full-time working respondents, a fairly even distribution by sex was found with males outnumbering females by only just over nine percent (9.4%). Respondents in the 25-29 year old category constituted the highest percentage (21.0%) of the total sample while respondents in the 60-65 year old category constituted the lowest percentage (4.5%) of the total sample. Almost three-fourths (74.8%) of the respondents were white and slightly more than one-fifth (21.3%) were black.

While almost one-fifth (18.9%) of the respondents had completed less than twelve years of school, almost one-and-a-half times that number (28.6) had completed four years of college or more. Better than fifteen percent (15.3%) of the respondents reported total personal incomes of less than $7,500 and just under seven percent (6.9%) re-

ported total household incomes in that range. One-fourth (25.7%) of the respondents reported total personal incomes in the $20,001 - $30,000 range while slightly more than thirty percent (30.5%) reported total household incomes in that range. Finally, almost ten percent (9.8%) reported total personal incomes in the over $30,000 range while better than double that number (22.4%) reported total household income in that range.

General Work History Information. Just under half (46.8%) of the respondents were presently employed in two categories: clerical workers (20.4%) and craftsmen (26.4%). Slightly more than another thirty percent (31.3%) of the respondents were employed in two other categories: professional and technical workers (19.4%) and managers and administrators (11.9%). The smallest number of respondents (2.5%) was found in the category of laborers. Just under half (47.7%) of the total sample started their present job in 1972 or after. Indeed, just over fifteen percent (15.3%) of the respondents had been in their present position less than a year and a half.

Almost seventy percent (69.5%) of the respondents indicated that they had held some other full-time job other than their current one and almost seventy percent (68.6%) of this group indicated that the work on the other job(s) had been very different from the work they were currently doing. Just over sixty percent (60.1%) of the total sample had been out of the full-time labor force for at least a year at some period in their lives since they were 18 years old. Almost the same percentage of men (59.5%) as women (60.9%) indicated that they fell into the above category.

General Career Change Information. Almost one-third (32.1%) of the respondents reported that they had seriously thought about changing to a very different type of work at some period in their lives. Better than ninety percent (90.7%) of these respondents reported that they had done so within the time period of 1970 to the present while almost a fourth (24.5%) of them indicated that they were presently thinking of such a change. The desire for more meaningful or interesting work was the most commonly stated response to the open-ended question: "What factors influenced (are influencing) you in deciding about the change?". Dislike of working conditions and the desire to be one's own boss were the next most frequently stated factors by respondents (10.6% and 10.6%). In response to the closed question: "Did any of the following factors influence your decision not to make this change?", respondents cited the need for retraining or more education and economic reasons as the two most critical factors. Just over one-fourth (26.2%) responded affirmatively to the former and one-fourth (25.0%) to the latter.

Composite Work History and Career Change Information. The 203 respondents reported a composite total of 491 valid career positions (changes from one occupational classification to another and not merely changes in job location were counted) held throughout their work histories. Almost without exception the career positions held by the respondents had been traditionally sex-appropriate (98.2%). Just under sixty percent (59.1%) of the career changes were classified as Type A changes; just over thirty-six percent (36.1%) were classified as Type B changes; and less than five percent (4.8%) were classified as Type C changes. Of the various problems encountered by respondents while

changing career position, economic problems were the most frequently cited, followed by attitudinal problems and family problems.

Mid-Life Career Changers and Re-Entry Persons. Just under forty percent (39.1%) of the respondents in the total sample in the age category of 30-50 could be classified as mid-life career changers (Respondents ages 30 to 50 who had had at least five years in their last career position before making a valid change to a new position). The division by sex was almost exactly even. Fifty-one percent were male and forty-nine percent were female. Just over two-thirds of the mid-life career changers were white and just over one-fourth were black.

Eighty-five percent had completed at least a full 12 years of school; twenty-nine percent had finished at least four years of college; and seven percent had completed graduate school or held a professional degree. While just under one-third of the mid-life career change respondents reported total personal incomes of less than $10,001, only five percent indicated total household income in that range. Twenty percent reported total personal income in the $10,001-15,000 range but only fifteen percent indicated total household income in that range. Slightly less than one-third (29%) reported total personal income in excess of 20,001 with over half (54%) indicating total household income in that range.

An almost equal distribution by location was found with fifty-one percent of the mid-life career change respondents from Chicago City and forty-nine percent from Peoria County. The career positions held by mid-life career change respondents had been traditionally sex-appropriate almost without exception (95.1%).

Greater percentages of male mid-life career changers than female mid-life career changers were classified as Change Type B (30% male/15% female) and Change Type C (10% male/7.5% female). On the other hand, greater percentages of female mid-life career changers than male mid-life career changers were classified as Change Type A (22.5% female/15% male).

Slightly greater than one-fifth (21.95%) of the mid-life career changes indicated that they had had some problems while making their mid-life career change. There was almost an equal distribution by sex of respondents who had had problems (5 females/4 males). Economic problems were the most commonly cited problems, followed by family problems and "other" problems.

Of the 41 respondents classified as mid-life career changers, just over one-third (36.6%) could also be classified as re-entry persons. Thirteen (31.7%) had been full-time homemakers for at least five years before changing to another career position and two (4.9%) had been in the armed services for at least five years before changing to another career position. The remaining two-thirds (63.4%) had been employed in a different full-time paid job classification.

Of the 92 female respondents in the total sample, almost half of them (47.8%) had entered or re-entered the full-time paid labor force at some period after they had been full-time homemakers to holding full-time paid jobs in the labor force. The approximate other two-thirds (63.6%) held full-time paid jobs in the labor force prior to becoming full-time homemakers. Of this latter group, a little over one-fourth (28.6%) returned to the same job classification on re-entering the full-time paid labor force whereas almost three-fourths (71.4%) took jobs in a different classification upon re-entry.

Of the 111 male respondents in the total sample, just over one-third of them had entered or re-entered the full-time paid labor force at some period after they had been in the armed services. Just under one-half (46.1%) went from being students to being in the armed services to holding a full-time paid job in the labor force. The other half (53.9%) held full-time paid jobs prior to being in the armed services. Of this latter group, just over a half (52.4%) returned to the same job classification on re-entering the full-time paid labor force and just under half (47.6%) took jobs in a different classification on re-entry.

Conclusions

This pilot study has produced an interesting profile of Illinois residents in Chicago City and Peoria County who can be classified as mid-life career changers.

First, they appear to form a sizeable population. Approximately one-fifth (20.2%) of the respondents in the total sample of the 203 full-time working respondents, ages 25 to 65, can be classified as mid-life career changers. Indeed, when only the 105 respondents in the age category of 30 to 50 are considered, the percentage of mid-life career changers increases to just under forty percent (39.1%).

Second, some interesting observations based on the sex of the mid-life career changer may be noted. The number of mid-life career changers is almost evenly divided between males and females. The career positions held by the mid-life career changers throughout their entire career histories have been almost all traditionally sex-appropriate. Greater percentages of males than females made mid-life career changes (1) from a position they gradually became dissatisfied with or (2) from a position they still enjoyed to another position they thought they would

enjoy even more. On the other hand, greater percentages of females than males made mid-life career changes in response to some external event over which they often had little control.

Third, there seems to be no relevance attached to the geographic sampling location with an almost equal distribution of mid-life career changers along this variable.

Fourth, the overall educational level appears to be fairly high for mid-life career changers.

Fifth, the income level (particularly when total household income is considered) appears to be very high for mid-life career changers.

Sixth, there is an indication that problems are experienced at the time of mid-life career change for some changers; however, they are widely varied for different persons.

Seventh, an important sub-group of mid-life career changers in this sample consisted of re-entry changers: primarily homemakers and a small number of males leaving the military service.

This pilot study has also produced an interesting profile of Illinois residents in Chicago City and Peoria County who are currently between the ages of 25 and 65 and working for pay full-time. The phenomenon of career change appears to be widespread in this population. Working at different jobs (almost all of which are traditionally sex-appropriate) and some absence from the full-time labor force after the age of 18 are the rules rather than the exceptions for both males and females. The desire for more meaningful or interesting work, the dislike of working conditions, and the desire to be one's own boss were the most frequently stated reasons for desiring a career change. The need for retraining or more education and economic reasons appear to be the two

critical factors which are influencing persons against making desired career changes.

Implications

This pilot study was designed to provide data on a large and diverse category of Illinois adults, identified as mid-life career changers, who might benefit from vocational education. The evidence presented suggested that, at least among the full-time residents of Chicago City and Peoria County, the phenomenon of career change appears to be widespread and that mid-life career changers form a sizeable and diverse population.

While there is an indication that some mid-life career changers (21.9% in this pilot study) experience problems at the time of the change, it appears that more do not. One hypothesis might be that the fairly high educational levels and very high income levels (particularly when total household income is considered) of the mid-life career changers in this study enabled them to make successful changes. This hypothesis, coupled with the findings that (1) the need for retraining or more education and (2) economic reasons appear to be the two critical factors which are influencing persons against making desired career changes, would appear to suggest that mid-life career change is difficult for a great number of adults today. Further research into these barriers to mid-life career change is needed.

One of the research questions in this pilot study concerned the current status of adult vocational education in Illinois for mid-life career changers. It is difficult to directly answer this question based on the findings of this study. However, the pilot study clearly indicates that (1) greater flexibility and (2) innovative methods of servic-

ing the adult vocational education needs of mid-life career changers as well as other adult career changers are called for. A developmental perspective in adult development should dictate a change not only in the way career education is typically addressed in elementary and secondary school programs but also in the way the institutions of "schooling" and the "workplace" function. To this end, adult vocational education must become a facilitator of adult development by supporting flexible entry and exit to schooling (training) and work.

The observations based on the sex of the mid-life career changer have important implications for adult vocational education. First, the fact that the career positions held by mid-life career changers (as well as by the total respondent sample) throughout their entire work histories were almost exclusively traditionally sex-appropriate gives rise to the question why. There have been a number of explanations for this situation, many of which have suggested that some of the responsibility lies with vocational education. It is vitally important that adult vocational education increase its commitment to study its programs and practices to insure that they are not contributing to lessening the options of males or females. The importance of this was emphasized in a recent report of a study on the trends and prospects of occupational segregation by sex. Blau and Hendricks concluded that:

> Since changes in the occupational structure of the economy between 1970 and 1985 are expected to have little effect on the extent of occupational segregation, if reductions are to be made they must be based on alterations in sex composition within occupations. If past trends are maintained, how much change in the magnitude of segregation can be expected from this source?
>
> Our projections strongly suggest that major reductions in the degree of sex segregation of the labor force will not be forthcoming from expected shifts in occupation mix or from changes in sex composition within occupations in

> line with 1970-80 trends. To achieve a larger decline in segregation than we have forecast requires substantially more success in altering the sex ratio within occupations in the future than we have enjoyed in the recent past. (p. 208-209).

Second, the findings that greater percentages of males than females made mid-life career changes (1) from a position they gradually became dissatisfied with or (2) from a position they still enjoyed to another position they thought they would enjoy even more and the findings that greater percentages of females than males made mid-life career changes in response to some external event over which they often had little control suggest the real need for further research into the specifics of these different kinds of changes, i.e., the needs and problems unique as well as common to each type.

The findings which suggest that it is the rule rather than the exception for both males and females to have some extended absence(s) from the full-time paid labor force after the age of 18 have serious implications for adult vocational education. It appears that one major function of adult vocational education is in the expanding role of providing training for re-entry into the paid labor force.

In summary, the findings of this pilot study suggest that additional research in a number of different areas is needed to insure that the framework on which adult vocational education in Illinois is being built is a sound one.

## References


1. American Vocational Association. Career Education - Third Yearbook of the American Vocational Association, edited by Joel H. Magisos. Washington, D.C.: American Vocational Association, 1973.
2. "America's Adults," "In Search of What?". U.S. News and World Report, August 21, 1978.
3. Atchley, Robert C. "The Life Course, Age Grading, and Age-Linked Demands for Decision Making." In Life-Span Developmental Psychology: Normative Life Crises, edited by Nancy Datan and Leon H. Ginsberg. New York: Academic Press, 1975.
4. Bailey, Larry J., and Stadt, Ronald. Career Education - New Approaches to Human Development. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight Publishing Company, 1973.
5. Barton, John C., and Moore, Allen B. "Career Education for Adults: What's Available?" American Vocational Journal, 50 (1975):58-60.
6. Baumgardner, Steve R. "Vocational Planning: The Great Swindle." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 56(1977):17-22.
7. Birch, Warren. "Work Sample Testing for Adults with Special Needs." American Vocational Journal, 51(1976):36-38
8. Campbell, David P., and Klein, Kenneth L. "Job Satisfaction and Vocational Interests." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 24 (1975):125-131.

9. Clopton, Willard C. "An Exploratory Study of Career Change in Middle Life." In Dissertation Abstracts International, 33 (8-B): 3811.

10. Clopton, Will. "Personality and Career Change." Industrial Gerontology, 17(1973):9-17.

11. Cohen, Stanley H. "Another Look at the Issue of Continuity versus Change in Models of Human Development." In Life-Span Developmental Psychology, edited by Nancy Datan and Hayne W. Reese. New York: Academic Press, 1977.

12. Counseling Psychologist. "Special Issue on Counseling Adults," 6(1), 1976.

13. Crites, J.O. Vocational Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969.

14. Crites, John O. "Work and Careers." In Handbook of Work, Organization, and Society, edited by Robert Dubin. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1976.

15. Dubin, Samuel S. "Obsolenscence or Lifelong Education: A Choice for the Professional." American Psychologist, 27 (1972):486-498.

16. Dubin, Samuel S. "The Psychology of Lifelong Learning. New Developments in the Professions." International Review of Applied Psychology, 23(1974):17-34.

17. Dubin, Samuel S. "Updating and Midcareer Development and Change." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 23(1974):152-158.

18. Dwight, Alice Heasley. "Once a Blue-Collar Worker, Always a Blue-Collar Worker?" Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 26 (1978):318-325.

19. Entine, Alan D. "The Mid-career Counseling Process." Industrial Gerontology, 3(1976):105-111.

20. Erikson, E.H. Childhood and Society, 2d ed. New York: W.W. Norton, 1963.

21. Evans, Rupert N., and Herr, Edwin L. Foundations of Vocational Education, 2d ed. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, Publishers, 1978.

22. Fredrickson, Ronald H., Macy, Francis U., and Vickers, Donn. "Barriers to Adult Career Change." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 57(1978):166-169.

23. Gergen, Kenneth, J. "Stability, Change, and Chance in Understanding Human Development." In Life-Span Developmental Psychology, edited by Nancy Datan and Hayne W. Reese. New York: Academic Press, 1977.

24. Ginzberg, E., Ginsberg, S.W., Axelrod, S., and Herma, J.R. Occupational Choice: An Approach to a General Theory. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951.

25. Gottfredson, Gary D. "Career Stability and Redirection in Adulthood." Journal of Applied Psychology, 62(1977):436-445.

26. Gysbers, Norman C., and Moree, Earl J. "Beyond Career Development." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 53(1975):647-652.

27. Hall, Clyde W. "Enlarging the Concept of Adult Education." American Vocational Journal, 49(1974):25-26

28. Hall, Clyde W. "Adult Education Update." American Vocational Journal, 50(1975):84-85; 91.

29. Heath, D.H. "Adolescent and Adult Predictors of Vocational Adaptation." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 9(1927):1-19.

30. Herr, Edwin L. "The Roots of Career Education." In The College Review Board. New York: College Board, No. 105, Fall 1977.

31. Herr, Edwin L. "Vocational Planning: An Alternate View." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 56(1977):25-27.

32. Heistand, Dale L. Changing Careers After Thirty-Five. New York: Columbia University Press, 1971.

33. Holland, J.L. The Psychology of Vocational Choice. Waltham, Massachusetts: Slaisdell, 1966.

34. Hoyt, Kenneth; Evans, Rupert; Mangum, Garth; Bowen, Ella; and Gale, Donald. Career Education in the High School. Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing Company, 1977.

35. Jordaan, Jean Pierre. "Life Stages as Organizing Modes of Career Development." In Vocational Guidance and Human Development, edited by Edwin L. Herr. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1974.

36. Kelleher, Carol H. "Second Careers: A Growing Trend." Industrial Gerontology, 17(1973):1-8.

37. Kimmel, Douglas C. Adulthood and Aging: An Interdisciplinary Developmental View. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1974.

38. Knox, Alan B. Adult Development and Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977.

39. Levinson, D.J., Darrow, C.M., Klein, E.B., Levinson, M.H., and McKee, B. "The Psychosocial Development of Men in Early Adulthood and the Mid-Life Transition." In Life History Research in Psychopathology (3), edited by D.E. Hicks, A.

Thomas, and M. Roff. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1974.

40. Levitan, Sar A. "Education and Work: Issues for the 1980's." Columbus, Ohio: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, National Faculty Planning Session, Nov., 1978.

41. Miller, Carroll H. "Career Development Theory in Perspective." In Vocational Guidance and Human Development, edited by Edwin L. Herr. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1974.

42. Morrison, Robert F. "Career Adaptivity: The Effective Adaptation of Managers to Changing Role Demands." Journal of Applied Psychology, 62(1977):549-558.

43. Munson, Harold L. "Career Education Reconsidered: A Life-Experiences Model." Personnel and Guidance Journal 57 (1978):136-139.

44. Murphy, Patrick P., and Burck, Harman D. "Career Development of Men at Mid-Life." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 9(1976): 337-342.

45. Neugarten, B.L. and Associates (Eds.). Personality in Middle and Late Life. New York: Atherton, 1964.

46. Neugarten, B.L., and Datan, N. "Sociological Perspectives on the Life Cycle." In Life-Span Developmental Psychology, edited by P.B. Baltes and K.W. Schaie. New York: Academic Press, 1973.

47. Nydegger, Corinne N. "Middle Age: Some Early Returns - A Commentary." International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 7(1976):137-141.

48. Osipow, Samuel H. "The Great Expose Swindle: A Reader's Reaction." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 56(1977):23-24.

49. Personnel and Guidance Journal. "Special Issue on Counseling Over the Life Span." 55(3), 1976.

50. Peters, Herman J., and Hansen, James C. Vocational Guidance and Career Development: Selected Readings, 3d. ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1977.

51. Phillips, Ione. "Editorial: New Options for Adults." Voc Ed, 53 (1978):37.

52. Riegel, Klaus F. "Adult Life Crises: A Dialectic Interpretation of Development." In Life-Span Developmental Psychology: Normative Life Crises, edited by Nancy Datan and Leon H. Ginsberg. New York: Academic Press, 1975.

53. Rosenberg, Howard. "Games the Vocationally Undecided Play." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 561977):229-234.

54. Rumpf, Edwin L. "Adult Education - Voc Ed's Unfinished Business." American Vocational Journal, 48(1973):21-23.

55. Schlossberg, Nancy K. "Adult Men - Education or Re-Education." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 19(1970):36-40.

56. Schlossberg, Nancy K. "Programs for Adults. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 53(1975):681-685.

57. Schlossberg, Nancy K. "Career Development in Adults: Why Do People 35 and Over Change Jobs?" American Vocational Journal, 50(1975):38-40.

58. Sinick, Daniel. "Counseling Older Persons: Career Change and Retirement." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 25(1976):18-25.

59. Super, D.E., and Bachrach, P.B. Vocational Development: A Framework for Research. New York: Teachers College Press, 1957.

60. Walker, Corinne. "New Models for Postsecondary Vo-Tech." American Vocational Journal, 49(1974):37-38.

61. Weaver, Donna Rae. "How To Teach Someone Old Enough to be Your Father (or Mother!)." American Vocational Journal, 51 (1976):43;46.

62. White, R.W. The Enterprise of Living. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972.

63. Wirtz, Willard. "Education/Work Policy: A New Imperative, A New Prospect." Phi Delta Kappan, 58(1976):126-131.

64. Thomas, L. Eugene. "Why Study Mid-Life Career Change?" Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 24(1975):37-40.

65. Thomas, L. Eugene; Mela, Richard L.; Robbins, Paula I.; and Harvey, David W. "Corporate Dropouts: A Preliminary Typology." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 24(1976):220-228.

66. Thompson, Anthony P. "Client Misconceptions in Vocational Counseling." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 55(1976):30-33.

67. Varga, Lou. "Occupational Floundering." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52(1973):225-231.

68. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, "Special Issue on Mid-Life Career Change," 25(4), 1977.

69. McCoy, V.R., Ryan, C., and Lichtenberg, J.W. The Adult Life Cycle: Training Manual and Reader. Kansas: Division of Continuing Education, University of Kansas, 1978.

70. Blau, F.D., and Hendricks, W.E. "Occupational Segregation By Sex: Trends and Prospects." The Journal of Human Resources, XIV(1979):197-210.

## VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR AVOCATIONAL PURPOSES

Not all adult vocational education is job related, a large segment deals with avocational topics. These courses are usually offered by a wide variety of institutions and organizations for no credit. A person wishing to learn woodworking in the high school evening program or someone enrolled in gourmet cooking at the community college would be participating in this type of adult vocational education . (Note: Participation in programs such as Consumer Homemaking Education Programs (CHEP) is not included in the avocational educational offerings. The program goal is to assist low income homemakers develop management and homemaking skills fundamental to the occupation of homemaker.). It is difficult to estimate how many adults participate in community education programs in the Illinois educational system because of reporting procedures. The adults who enroll in avocational courses are not distinguished from adults enrolled in job related coursework. Community education programs receive no direct financial support from state appropriations but postsecondary occupational programs do. Community education programs must be largely self-supporting from fees paid by participants.

### Characteristics of Learners

The National Center for Education Statistics (1978) reported that 26.1% of the participants in adult educational activities were enrolled in non-credit, non-job-related courses (1, p. 8). The same study found the rate of adult participation in education relating to personal and family living and social and recreational interests growing. Participation in personal and family living education grew from 19.8% in 1969 to

27.7% in 1975 while participation in social and recreational topics jumped from 6.7% to 7.8% in the same time period (1, p. 11).

Knox (1977) reported that one-half of the adult population participates in major continuing education activities during a five-year period, and one-fifth of the part-time educational activities are related to use of leisure. The 10th Annual Gallup Pole (1978) reported that adults identified courses relating to hobbies (e.g., arts, cooking, sewing, home decorating) as the fourth most popular type of class in which they would enroll. Education relating to hobbies and personal and family development has wide appeal in the adult population. Adults seek educational activities in avocational areas because they find satisfaction in personal growth and development, enjoy learning for its own sake, and/or desire to socialize and break their daily routine.

Vocational education for avocational reasons is often considered "frill" education. It is not considered to be essential although it is pleasureable. For this reason it is more popular with the middle and upper socioeconomic levels which are better able to afford the course fees. Therefore, it is not unexpected to find participation in educational activities in Illinois increasing with rising income levels, particularly in non-credit coursework.

Women and older adults are more likely to pursue non-job-related learning (4). Non-job-related learning is often offered for no credit. The Illinois Learner Study (1978) found similar results. Women have a greater tendency to enroll in non-credit courses. Thirteen percent of the Illinois participants were age 65 and over but only 1.8% of this age group were enrolled in credit courses.

The following characteristics are a composite of the adult learners in non-credit activities in Illinois. This person is most likely to be a white female, 18 to 54 years old, who is married and employed full-time. She is probably in a higher income bracket and completed either high school or graduate school (5, p. 36).

Copa and Maurice (1978) completed a study of the need for job related training in Minnesota. A portion of the survey identified the adults self-perceived need for education related to hobbies and other areas of special interests. The results are discussed below. It is probably the most recent and comprehensive study in this area. 44.3% of the population surveyed expressed a positive desire in pursuing education related to hobbies and special interests. The expressed desires and potential learner characteristics in Minnesota can provide clues to the desire for avocational education in Illinois.

As in the Illinois Learner Study, the Minnesota study found a need for education increases with income. It ranged from 27% of the individuals having a household income to below $5,000 to 63% of the individuals with incomes between $25,000 to $99,000 expressing need. The largest group expressing need were people earning between $10,000 and $15,000 annually (6, p. 39).

More women expressed a need for educational activities than men. Within the total sample expressing need, 18.6 were men and 25.7% were women. The Minnesota study found the need for education for hobbies and special interests increased and then decreased with age.

The following results are reported concerning the positive responses indicating a need for education relating to hobbies by age:

| AGE | % of Positive Response |
|---|---|
| 16 to 25 | 13.4% |
| 26 to 35 | 12.6% |
| 36 to 45 | 6.4% |
| 46 to 70 | 11.1% |

Fifty-four percent of the adults in the 16 to 25 year group, 63% of the 26 to 35 year group and 34% of the 46 to 70 year group desired this type of educational activities (6, p. 39).

In general, the participation in adult education increases as the level of past educational attainment increases. The same is true of the expressed desire for educational activities and its relationship to the individual's past educational attainment. Few of the adults who had not completed high school indicated they were interested. While a large number of adults who had completed high school through completion of graduate school expressed the desire for educational activities relating to hobbies and special interests, the largest group in need was those who had completed high school.

The largest group who perceived a need for this kind of education was the employed. The need was equal for those who were employed and those who were unemployed, looking for work (55%). Those not in the labor force indicated the least need.

The people surveyed identified their desire for educational activities in the following areas: (1) technical skills, (2) home-related areas, and (3) arts and crafts. Men requested technical skills more often and women preferred home-related topics and arts and crafts.

Self improvement was the most frequent reason given for desiring this kind of education activity. Next frequent were "better use of

leisure time" and to "save money by doing it myself." Women were more likely to identify "better use of time" and men tended to identify "to save money" (6, p. 94).

Structure of the Delivery System

It is very difficult to pinpoint the type of educational delivery system involved in avocational adult education. Educational activities for non-job-related interests are offered by a wide range of providers. The system is dependent on the desire of the participants, the structure of the material presented, and the organization providing the educational activity. The Illinois Learner Study (1978) found the foliowing organizations provided the greatest portion of the non-credit courses (not necessarily non-job-related):

| | |
|---|---|
| Business | 15.4% |
| Public Community Colleges | 13.5% |
| High Schools | 10.8% |
| Out-of-State Institutions | 7.3% |
| Universities | 6.5% |
| Churches | 6.1% |
| Private Colleges | 5.6% |

In Illinois the number of non-credit offerings is increasing. The Illinois Learner Study identifies three components of non-credit courses: structure, instructor, and clientele served. Classes are generally offered in an institutional or organizational setting. 82% were in scheduled classes and 90% were held in the evening. Morning is often preferred by those not in the labor force. The length of time varied greatly from one day to one year. The course was usually modified in structure and centered around a specific topic in which the clients were

interested. The activity is dependent on voluntary attendance. Materials are usually developed specifically for the offering. The instructor is often a volunteer or employed part-time. (Formal evaluation of skills learned is not a major aspect of the course.) The clientele is generally homogeneous because they are seeking education based on common interests rather than completing a degree (5, p. 38).

Preferences in structure are tied to the adult learner's past educational experiences. If the experiences are positive the individual is likely to prefer a traditional campus setting but if they are negative, the individual may prefer an outreach center. Therefore some duplication of course offerings may be desirable in order to provide a variety of delivery systems to reach the widest audience.

Participation is influenced by several factors: (1) the number of institutions offering education relating to hobbies and special interest, (2) the proximity of the institutions and (3) the variety of offerings available. The more organizations offering adult vocational courses the more choices a participant has. Downstate is more dependent on public schools for these offerings than the Chicago area because fewer organizations offer this type of activity. Participants in rural areas often have to travel further distances which may limit participation. A wide variety of courses are available to residents of Illinois. These range from needlepoint to home landscaping; from gourmet cookery to upholstery. Many courses are formed by local adult programs and community colleges when sufficient interest is expressed in a particular topic.

Future Directions

Clark (1973) found Illinois junior colleges' commitment to non-credit adult education lower than that of the high schools' due to the reim-

bursement policy. The 1978 Illinois Community College Board Self Study report found similar results. The ICCB "believes that opportunities should exist for universal lifelong education" (8, p. 15). The ICCB master plan indicates one goal is to provide community education programs including non-credit adult continuing education classes (avocational, vocational or general interests). The ICCB Self Study recommends statewide leadership is needed in defining and supporting the community college missions. These missions need to be supported whether or not credit hours are involved.

The development of these kinds of community education programs in the adult education and community college programs throughout the state is encouraged. Personal development for avocational reasons is important in itself. In addition, avocational pursuits can become vocational ones. A homemaker may find cake decorating an enjoyable personal hobby as well as a way to supplement the family income. The skills developed in non-job-related activities may also grow into a full-time occupation providing total income for those who wish to change careers or re-enter the work force.

## References


1. National Center for Educational Statistics. Participation in Adult Education: Final Report 1975. Washington, D.C., 1978.
2. Knox, Alan B. Adult Development and Learning. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc. Publishers, 1977, p. 183.
3. "The 10th Annual Gallup Poll," Lifelong Learning: The Adult Years, November 1978, p. 24.
4. Peterson, Richard et al., Toward Lifelong Learning in America: A Sourcebook for Planners. Berkeley, California: Educational Testing Services, 1978. Prepublication Copy. p. II-74.
5. Illinois Board of Higher Education. Study of Adult Learners. Springfield, Illinois, 1978.
6. Copa, George H. and Clyde F. Maruice. Demand For Additional Job-Related Training by Minnesota Residents Age 16 and Over, 1977. Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1978, p. 29.
7. Clark, Fredric, A. Statewide Survey of Adult Vocational Educational Programs and Services. Illinois State Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation, Springfield, Illinois. 1973, p. i.
8. Illinois Community College Board Self-Study Report, Illinois Community College Board, Springfield, Illinois, 1978, p. 15.

# VII. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Adult vocational education is undergoing changes in the State of Illinois. There is a growing recognition of the need to serve all adults, of the need for coordinated statewide planning, and of the need for articulation among the agencies and institutions that deliver adult vocational education.

Adults are entering or re-entering vocational education activities in growing numbers. They seek vocational education to receive initial occupational training, to upgrade skills to maintain an occupation or seek promotion, to change careers, to re-enter the paid work world, or for avocational reasons.

In 1975 for the first time, adult learners engaged in vocational and adult education outnumbered the youth in the formal system at all levels (1). Based on critical economic, social, and technological conditions and on population age shifts, it is apparent that this trend will continue.

Two educational concepts emerged during the last decade which are having a profound effect on adult vocational education -- career education and lifelong learning (2). The concept of career education recognizes that for most people a meaningful, satisfying, and productive work experience is important. The concept of lifelong learning is based on the need of most people to upgrade continuously their skills and/or change career directions.

The overall purpose of this project was to begin to develop a plan for research, development, and instruction in adult vocational education in the State of Illinois. As a first step in this direction two specific goals for this report were identified. First, to identify the current

status of adult vocational education in Illinois, and second, to recommend key directions in which the State may move regarding adult vocational education. To accomplish these goals, a comprehensive review of literature was undertaken. This procedure was supplemented by interviews and discussions with key individuals involved in adult vocational education in Illinois. Information was also obtained from adults in the State who have a need for adult vocational education. Adults were defined as individuals who have assumed responsibility for themselves and look to themselves for direction.

Five major groups of adults in Illinois who need and can benefit from vocational education were identified. These groups consist of adults who are:

1. seeking to upgrade occupational skills for purposes of occupational maintenance or advancement
2. planning or undertaking a mid-life career change
3. re-entering the paid work force after an extended absence
4. unemployed and/or underemployed
5. seeking vocational education for avocational purposes

The following sections will summarize the status of each of these groups, draw conclusions regarding their vocational education needs, and make recommendations for delivery of vocational education to each group.

Vocation Education for Occupational Maintenance and/or Advancement

The 1968 Vocational Education Amendments direct vocational educators to provide training for persons who have entered the labor market and need training or retraining to achieve stability or advancement. Most of these individuals will be adults. Enrollment projections indicate

a large increase in the number of adults who want occupational courses providing training in the present occupation or upgrading of skills (3). In order for vocational education to serve this growing number of adults, educators must be aware of the changing nature of the work force, business and industry retraining needs, and the characteristics, motives and needs of the adult.

Many factors contribute to the changing nature of the labor market. These factors influence the adult worker's need for opportunities to retrain or upgrade occupational skills. One of the major changes in the labor market is rapidly changing technology. Advancing technology affects occupational stability and creates economic and social changes to which adult vocational education programs must respond. Shifts in consumer demands and technological changes alter the need for manpower, creating the need for new training. The demand for some occupations is decreasing. Growth is occurring in a number of new and emerging occupations creating a need for a variety of skilled employers. Many adults need vocational education to keep up with the technology of their occupation and to maintain a position of mobility by expanding their knowledge and skills. Few workers can receive initial job training and continue in their job for the length of their career.

Other factors have affected the nature of the work force. One of the most dramatic changes has been the result of the civil rights legislation. The Equal Opportunity Employment laws have opened the workplace to women and minorities. It has provided equal pay for equal jobs. There are indications that the work place is opening up even more by moving to equal pay for comparable jobs. The work place will

continue to change with respect to women and minorities. Vocational education is being called upon to facilitate these changes.

Another aspect of the changing workplace is employee mobility. Career mobility is becoming more frequent, with individuals holding several jobs in a work career. This may include changing employers and/or occupations. In either case, retraining or upgrading of skills may be necessary.

The retraining and skill upgrading of workers should incorporate the employee traits and skills business and industry feels are important. If it does not address these needs adult vocational education cannot be successful. Vocational educators must be aware of local, regional and statewide manpower needs, the skills required by specific industries and the employee traits desired by employers. Accurate forecasting of manpower needs is difficult but essential. Programs to retrain or upgrade employee skills should be based on accurate manpower forecasts. Otherwise, too few or too many workers will be employed to fill available openings. Manpower needs, manpower supply and occupational shifts affect manpower forecasts.

A need exists for adults to retrain and upgrade job-related skills. Adult vocational education does provide a large percentage of the current job-related training. Currently the major emphasis is on the entry level job but vocational education is providing more and more retraining for those adults who have already entered the labor market. Upgrading employee competencies is compatible with the needs of business. To prosper and grow, industry must utilize and upgrade its human resources. Adults seek training programs to develop new skills. These new skills allow them to remain on their current job, advance within an occupation, or begin new and challenging careers.

Adult vocational educators will need to explore more fully the training needs of adults and businesses in Illinois. Rapidly changing technology and consumer shifts in demand for goods and services make employee retraining and upgrading essential. Educators and industry need to work cooperatively to establish ways the employee can easily enter and exit the workplace for retraining opportunities. Easier entry and exit may be facilitated by business providing paid leaves for advanced education and/or partial or full payment of the adult learners fees and tuition. Adult vocational educators and business can work cooperatively to provide effective retraining programs within the firm or business. Adult vocational education can continue to expand the retraining programs that are available.

Vocational Education for the Unemployed and/or Underemployed

The 1979 jobless rate in Illinois is slightly above the national rate. There are an estimated 322,000 persons within the state who are unemployed for a jobless rate of 6.3 percent (4, p. 88). As in the nation, the jobless rate for women (6.8 percent) is higher than for men (6.3 percent). For teenagers the unemployment rate is 16.3 percent.

The unemployment rates for both the United States and Illinois represent unemployment for those in the labor force. The civilian labor force comprises the total of all civilians classified as employed or unemployed in accordance with criteria established by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Therefore, the official unemployment totals provide only a partial indication of the real extent of unemployment.

Among those not in the "official" labor force, is a group often referred to as "discouraged workers." They are people who have looked for work but were unable to find a job, believe there is no work

available, lack necessary skills for employment or believe employers would consider them too young or too old for work.

Reasons for the high joblessness and high unemployment rates recently experienced in the nation and in Illinois are many and varied. The structure of the labor market has changed. No longer does the labor force consist primarily of mature men with a long attachment to it. Rather the labor force shows greater proportions of youth, many with no previous work history; women, who enter, leave and re-enter the labor market and minorities who have historically had higher unemployment rates than other groups (5, p. 14). These groups all have above average unemployment rates and they have entered the labor force in increasing numbers since the mid-1960's adding almost one million persons to the ranks of the unemployed nationally (6, p. 4). This changing demographic structure of the labor force in Illinois, with a record number of women and youth entering the labor market has resulted in higher overall unemployment in the state (4, p. 45).

Three other groups have also boosted unemployment rates. Older workers are remaining in or re-entering the work force due to the economic pressures of inflation, recent changes in mandatory retirement policies, and legislation against age discrimination in employment.

New antidiscrimination legislation for the handicapped provided by sections 503 and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and improved educational opportunities offered under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, the Higher Education Amendments of 1972, and the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 and 1976, have increased the numbers of handicapped persons in the labor force.

The decrease in the Armed Forces from a peak of 3.5 million in 1968 to 2.1 million in 1976 placed an additional 1.4 million veterans into the civilian labor force during that period (7, p. 7). The unemployment problems of the younger members of this group continue to be problematic.

Other groups, whose experience in the labor market is successful in the fact that they have obtained jobs, gain little to improve their quality of life. Recent government recognition of these groups has led to the use of terms such as the underemployed, the subemployed, and the underutilized. A majority of these people are functioning below their potential. Many because they lack education or training.

Manpower training and vocational education can and should make a major contribution to a national policy for reducing unemployment. To be successful, vocational education programs must utilize the broad approach of improving the transition from education to work. While job creation is a critical element in the set of labor market policies needed for response to the unemployment dilemma, there is also a need for basic skill development and job readiness (6). In addition, vocational education must concentrate on programs, not only for young people, but for people at various stages of life who need to adapt to the changing work world.

One of the distinctive and critically important aspects of CETA is the built-in flexibility that encourages responsiveness to the diverse needs of the various geographic and socioeconomic areas. The value of this flexibility is apparent in the ways in which prime sponsors have been able to design and implement programs that combine traditional employment and training efforts with more experimental and innovative

approaches (8). Vocational education must become equally as flexible if it is to continue to deliver useful and relevant educational programs to the diverse groups of adults who need and can benefit from them.

To reduce unemployment, manpower training programs, vocational education programs, and private business and industry must work together in a coordinated effort. There must be close integration of education and the workplace at all stages of individuals' lives. Employees at all age levels should have access to continuing education and periodic opportunities for skill renewal and retraining. The responsibility for providing such opportunities falls jointly on educational institutions, manpower training programs, and private business and industry.

Vocational Education for Mid-Life Career Change and for Re-Entering the Paid Work Force

It has been repeatedly suggested that vocational education must play an expanded role in the broad area of adult education. Little, however, has been written about the specifics of this role. The "whats", "whys", and "hows" of such an expanded role need to be more fully explored.

Several specific issues need to be researched further. For example, how many people are mid-life career changers? Willard Wirtz commented on this issue at the national level:

> We haven't the vaguest notion of the number of people (only that it is exceedingly large) who come -- someplace between the ages of 25 and 50 -- to a point of significant realization that they ought to be on a different career course, not just as a matter of boredom or frustration or some kind of whim, but as a calculated judgment about improving their worth both to themselves and to the whole system (9, p. 129).

It would appear that we have no better notion of the number of mid-life career changers in Illinois at this point in time.

Wirtz went on to say that "it is a strange system that makes no provision for the educational renewal opportunities which would give these mid-career decision points the meaning and significance they ought to have" (p. 129). Levitan seemed to be talking to the same point (educational renewal opportunities) when he asked: "Is vocational education ready to change its ways of doing things?" (10, p. 6).

Another major issue is the pressing need to know much more about the many different types of persons who might be called mid-life career changers. If we accept the definition of career change as "a change in the occupation or profession (paid or unpaid) being followed as one's work in life," then one very important sub-group of career changers is composed of persons re-entering the paid work force after some extended absence. Displaced homemakers have probably been the most widely publicized segment of this sub-group and a large percentage of them fall into the mid-life age range of 30 to 50 years old. The number of detailed research studies on this segment, however, has been very limited.

Other segments of this sub-group undoubtedly include persons leaving the military services; persons leaving institutions (health, educational, penal); persons who have been receiving unemployment compensation, disability compensation, or other public assistance; and others.

The identification and study of this and other sub-groups of mid-life career changers is fundamental to an increased understanding of the role(s) which adult vocational education should play in the future.

The expansion of the role(s) which vocational education might play in the area of mid-life career change, and re-entry into the paid work force, depends heavily on an increased base of knowledge in this area. During this project a study was undertaken to begin to answer the following research questions:

1. How prevalent is the phenomenon of mid-life career change among residents of Illinois?
2. What are the most common barriers identified by mid-life career changers?
3. What are the most common ways in which mid-life career changers respond to these barriers?
4. What are the major characteristics of mid-life career changers?
5. How prevalent is the phenomenon of re-entry into the paid labor market after some extended absence among residents of Illinois?
6. What are the most common barriers identified by re-entry persons?
7. What are the most common ways in which re-entry persons respond to these barriers?
8. What are the major characteristics of re-entry persons?
9. What is the current status of adult vocational education in Illinois for mid-life career changers?

The study has produced an interesting profile of Illinois residents in Chicago City and Peoria County who can be classified as mid-life career changers.

First, they appear to form a sizeable population. Approximately one-fifth (20.2%) of the respondents in the total sample of the 203 full-time working respondents, ages 25 to 65, can be classified as mid-life career changers. Indeed, when only the 105 respondents in the age category of 30 to 50 are considered, the percentage of mid-life career changers increases to just under forty percent (39.1%).

Second, some interesting observations based on the sex of the mid-life career changer may be noted. The number of mid-life career changers is almost evenly divided between males and females. The career positions held by the mid-life career changers throughout their entire career histories have been almost all traditionally sex-appropriate. Greater percentages of males than females made mid-life career changes (1) from a position they gradually became dissatisfied with, or (2) from a position they still enjoyed to another position they thought they would enjoy even more. On the other hand, greater percentages of females than males made mid-life career changes in response to some external event over which they often had little control.

Third, there seems to be no relevance attached to the geographic sampling location with an almost equal distribution of mid-life career changers along this variable.

Fourth, the overall educational level appears to be fairly high for mid-life career changers.

Fifth, the income level (particularly when total household income is considered) appears to be very high for mid-life career changers.

Sixth, there is an indication that problems are experienced at the time of mid-life career change for some changers; however, they are widely varied for different persons.

Seventh, an important sub-group of mid-life career changers in this sample consisted of re-entry changers: primarily homemakers and a small number of males leaving the military service.

The study has also produced an interesting profile of Illinois residents in Chicago City and Peoria County who are currently between ages of 25 and 65 and working for pay full-time. The phenomenon

of career change appears to be widespread in this population. Working at different jobs (almost all of which are traditionally sex-appropriate) and some absence from the full-time labor force after the age of 18 are the rules rather than the exceptions for both males and females. The desire for more meaningful or interesting work; the dislike of working conditions; and the desire to be one's own boss were the most frequently stated reasons for desiring a career change. The need for retraining or more education and economic reasons appear to be the two critical factors which are influencing persons against making desired career changes.

The study was designed to provide data on a large and diverse category of Illinois adults, identified as mid-life career changers, who might benefit from vocational education. The evidence presented suggested that, at least among the full-time residents of Chicago City and Peoria County, the phenomenon of career change appears to be widespread and that mid-life career changers form a sizeable and diverse population.

While there is an indication that some mid-life career changers (21.9% in this study) experience problems at the time of the change, it appears that more do not. One hypothesis might be that the fairly high educational levels and very high income levels (particularly when total household income is considered) of the mid-life career changers in this study enabled them to make successful changes. This hypothesis, coupled with the findings that (1) the need for retraining or more education and (2) economic reasons appear to be the two critical factors which are influencing persons against making desired career changes, would appear to suggest that mid-life career change is difficult for a

great number of adults today. Further research into these barriers to mid-life career change is needed.

One of the research questions in this study concerned the current status of adult vocational education in Illinois for mid-life career changers. It is difficult to answer this question directly based on the findings of this study. However, the pilot study clearly indicates that (1) greater flexibility and (2) innovative methods of servicing the adult vocational education needs of mid-life career changers as well as the adult career changers are called for. A developmental perspective in adult development should dictate a change not only in the way career education is typically addressed in elementary and secondary school programs but also in the way the institutions of "schooling" and the "workplace" function. To this end, adult vocational education must become a facilitator of adult development by supporting flexible entry and exit to schooling (training) and work.

The observations based on the sex of the mid-life career changer have important implications for adult vocational education. First, the fact that the career positions held by mid-life career changers (as well as by the total respondent sample) throughout their entire work histories were almost exclusively traditionally sex-appropriate gives rise to the question why. There have been a number of explanations for this situation, many of which have suggested that some of the responsibility lies with vocational education. It is vitally important that adult vocational education increase its commitment to study its programs and practices to insure that they are not contributing to lessening the options of males or females.

Second, the findings that greater percentages of males than females made mid-life career changes (1) from a position they gradually became dissatisfied with or (2) from a position they still enjoyed to another position they thought they would enjoy even more and the findings that greater percentages of females than males made mid-life career changes in response to some external event over which they often had little control suggest the real need for further research into the specifics of these different kinds of changes, i.e., the needs and problems unique as well as common to each type.

The findings which suggest that it is the rule rather than the exception for both males and females to have some extended absence(s) from the full-time paid labor force after the age of 18 have serious implications for adult vocational education. It appears that one major function of adult vocational education is in the expanding role of providing training for re-entry into the paid labor force.

In summary, the findings of this study suggest that additional research in a number of different areas is needed to insure that the framework on which adult vocational education in Illinois is being built is a sound one.

Vocational Education for Avocational Purposes

Not all adult vocational education is job related, a large segment deals with avocational topics. These courses are usually offered by a wide variety of institutions and organizations for no credit. It is difficult to estimate how many adults participate in community education programs in the Illinois educational system because of reporting procedures. The adults who enroll in avocational courses are not distinguished from adults enrolled in job related coursework. Community

education programs receive no direct financial support from state appropriations but postsecondary occupational programs do. Community education programs must be largely self-supporting from fees paid by participants.

Adults seek educational activities in vocational areas because they find satisfaction in personal growth and development, enjoy learning for its own sake, and/or desire to socialize and break their daily routine (11). Vocational education for avocational reasons is often considered "frill" education. It is not considered to be essential although it is pleasurable. For this reason, it is more popular with middle and upper socioeconomic levels which are better able to afford the course fees. Therefore, it is not unexpected to find participation in educational activities in Illinois increasing with rising income levels, particularly in non-credit coursework.

The development of community education programs in the adult education and community college programs throughout Illinois is encouraged. Personal development for avocational reasons is important in itself. In addition, avocational pursuits can become vocational ones. The skills developed in non-job-related activities may also grow into a full-time occupation providing income for those who wish to change careers or re-enter the paid work force.

## References


1. Grabowski, Stanley M. Training Teachers of Adults. National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education. Washington, D.C., 1976.
2. Davis, Glen B. "Review and Synthesis of Research on Adult Learners in Vocational/Technical/Career Education." Proceedings of a symposium on Adult Education in Vocational/Technical/Career Education at the Nation's Bicentennial Congress on Adult and Continuing Education, New York, 1976.
3. Garner, William. "Population and Enrollment Prophecies for Adult Education." The Career Educator. Dubuque, Iowa, 1978, p. 30-39.
4. Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, Research and Analysis. Annual Planning Report, Fiscal Year '79. State of Illinois Bureau of Employment Security, April, 1978.
5. Employment and Training Programs. Washington, D.C.: Commission on Federal Paperwork, July 15, 1977.
6. Lecht, Leonard A. Employment and Unemployment: Priorities for the Next Five Years. New York: The Conference Board, Inc., 1977.
7. Congress of the United States, Congressional Budget Office, Public Employment and Training Assistance: Alternative Federal Approaches. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February, 1977.
8. U.S. Department of Labor. Employment and Training Report of the President 1977. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

9. Wirtz, Willard. "Education/Work Policy: A New Imperative, A New Prospect." Phi Delta Kappan. 58 (1976):126-131.

10. Levitan, Sar A. "Education and Work: Issues for the 1980's." Columbus, Ohio: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, National Faculty Planning Session, Nov., 1978.

11. Knox, Alan B. Adult Development and Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977.